The Nation.

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The Week.

It is well known, and is highly characteristic, that the choice of the Jewish Rabbi to deliver the opening prayer at the St. Louis convention, was due to a wish not to offend the A. P. A. by employing a Catholic, nor the Catholics by employing a Protestant. In fact, the prayer was to be part of the general humbug for which the convention has been held. We doubt if any similar body has met in the United States with less sincerity. McKinley is probably the first candidate for the Presidency whose friends before the convention have had to confine themselves to apologies, whom hardly any one dared to praise, and whose own language showed his unfitness for the place; who refused to speak out, lest he should anticipate the platform, yet secretly fought hard to draw the platform to suit himself; who is surrounded by a mass of gold men who were silver men a fortnight ago, and stands on resolutions which the drafter and he have been fighting for some years. Lodge and McKinley as gold men are a sight most offensive to honest men. What, then, must the whole spectacle, including the Rabbi's prayer, be to the Almighty, whom it is evidently intended to hoodwink along with everybody else? When one considers what prayer professes to be, and to whom it is addressed, the use now made of it in Congress and in these political assemblages is fully as shocking as free coinage of silver at 16 to 1. What must the "niggers" who were "stolen" from Hanna by the gold men, who "treated them well," have thought of the Rabbi's invocation that they might be filled with "a deep and abiding sense of the transcendent dignity and nobility of American citizenship and the sacred obligations which should attend it"?

Picking one's way here and there among the miscellaneous gems of the platform, things rich and rare appear on every hand. Four years ago the platform shed bitter tears over the sufferings of the Jews in Russia. This year it holds up to scorn those "alien syndicates" (meaning Jewish syndicates) which have the credit of our government in pawn. This is pretty hard on the Rabbi chaplain. It is also pretty hard on John Sherman, who pawned the credit of the Government, on still harder terms, to the same alien syndicates. And what has become of home rule in Ireland, with which, four years ago, the Republicans so deeply sympathized? It seems to need sympathy now more than ever; yet the platform has not a throb of sympathy except for "wise" temperance and the struggling Cubans. We note with pleasure the ringing demand that women be admitted "to wider spheres of usefulness," though we are pained to find no more "reaffirming" of the one-cent postage plank or the Force-bill plank. Sill, we are to build and own the Nicaraguan Canal, buy "the Danish Islands," have a big navy and unlimited coast defences, and be ready for half-a-dozen foreign wars; all which gives some idea of the kind of taxation that is going to be imposed in order to meet "the necessary expenses of the Government."

Civil-service reform cuts only a small figure in the Republican platform, and was not mentioned in the discussion of issues among the delegates. However, the resolution in which the party "renew our repeated declarations that the civil-service law shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced, and extended wherever practicable," is all that could be asked. The important thing is whether the candidate who will stand on the St. Louis platform is a man who can be trusted to live up to this plank in case of his election. We are glad to say that McKinley's record on this question in Congress is a good one. He has never had much to say on the subject, but what he did say was excellent, and his votes were on the right side. His name is recorded among the yeas on the passage of the original Civil-Service act under Arthur's Administration, and he has always favored sustaining the commission in its work. On one notable occasion he declared himself a firm believer in the reform, and earnestly opposed a proposition favored by not a few of his own party to strike it down.

On the 24th of April, 1890, the executive, legislative, and judicial appropriation bill being before the House, Mr. Houk of Tennessee, one of the few Southern Republicans in Congress, moved to strike out the entire appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission, on the familiar ground that it was "an impracticable machine," and that the system was "inconsistent with the genius and spirit of our institutions." Mr. Cheadle, an Indiana Republican, followed in a similar strain, denouncing the whole theory of the civil-service law as "un-American in all its provisions," as "class legislation," and as finding its "great motive power in the educational institutions of this country, which want to find permanent place for their graduates." McKinley, who was the chairman of the ways and means committee, and so "leader of the House," closed the debate in a brief but excellent speech, which was followed by the rejection of Mr. Houk's motion, 128 to 61. "My only regret," began Mr. McKinley, "is that the committee on appropriations did not give to the Commission all the appropriation that was asked for, for the improvement and extension of the system." He proceeded to declare that, "if the Republican party of this country is pledged to any one thing more than another, it is to the maintenance of the civil-service law and its efficient execution; not only that, but to its enlargement and its further application to the public service." He pointed out that the law was put upon the statute-book by Republican votes, and that every national platform of the party since its enactment had declared not only in favor of its continuance in full vigor, but in favor of its enlargement so as to apply more generally to the public service. He maintained that "this is not alone the declaration and purpose of the Republican party, but it is in accordance with its highest and best sentiment—aye, more, it is sustained by the best sentiment of the whole country, Republican and Democratic alike." He concluded with these remarks, which he might well repeat as part of his letter of acceptance:

> "Mr. Chairman, the Republican party must take no backward step. The merit system is here, and it is here to stay; and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service."

The most prominent feature of the nomination of Mr. Garret A. Hobart for Vice-President at St. Louis is its proof of the command which the McKinley delegates had over the convention in every respect except the precise wording of the financial plank of the platform. It was not disguised from the time the delegates began to assemble that Mr. Hobart was Mr. Hanna's choice for the place. Had he not been supported in this way, his ambition would never have been satisfied. It is not the habit of national conventions to go for Vice-Presidential timber to small States whose electoral vote has been habitually cast for the opposite party. Mr. Hobart is a man of entire respectability and a good business man, yet there were probably not a dozen men in the convention, outside of the New Jersey delegation, who knew anything about his public or business career. In his own State, the most that can be said for him is that as a lawyer he has managed skilfully the affairs of some embarrassed corporations committed to his charge, and has made a fortune for himself by his practice; that he has impressed his party associates in the State with his ability as a campaign manager, although under his direction Republican candidates for Governor have steadily been beaten until the peculiar situation of affairs last year carried Mr. Griggs into the Governor's chair. When Mr. Hobart, as a member of the national Republican committee, arrived in St.

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Louis last week, he joined his fortunes at once with those of Mr. McKinley, going even so far as to vote in that committee to seat some of the anti-Platt delegates from this city. If the Platt men could have defeated him with one of their own New Yorkers, they would have done so, but they were prevented from carrying out their plan in this regard by the position taken by Gov. Morton as to the second place on the ticket, and by the general disinclination of the delegates to take any man from a State like New York, where the cliques in the party were so bitter towards one another. The New Jersey platform spoke out squarely for gold, and Mr. Hobart has not attempted to dodge that issue. In that light, therefore, he may be considered as leaven to the ticket.

Mr. Hobart's speech, at the meeting in his honor at Paterson on Monday evening, gave the country its first sample of the intellectual quality of the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency, and a disheartening sample it is. No candidate is compelled to be an orator, but he is or should be compelled to know when he is not. Mr. Hobart might surely have bowed his thanks to his friends and neighbors, and there made an end; but to have rambled on with such ineptness and grotesqueness as he did for ten minutes was to deprive himself at a stroke of that title to be considered a great man which has been said to consist in a strong conviction that one is not a great man. Intellectually, the candidates appear to be true yokefellows, though, mediocrity for mediocrity, one may think McKinley entitled to the first place he holds, and may hope Mr. Hobart's functions will, providentially, never go beyond presiding over the Senate, for which he is qualified by experience.

The first speeches which Major McKinley has made as a candidate all indicate a disposition on his part to make the tariff the chief if not the only issue of the campaign. He has made half-a-dozen speeches, and in but one of these has he even squinted at the currency issue, while in several of them he has laid stress upon the tariff as the remedy for all our financial ills. He assured the Milholland McKinley Leaguers of New York, when they called upon him on Friday:

"All we have to do this year is to keep close to the people, hearken to the voice of the people, have faith in the people, and, if we do that, the people will win for us a triumph for that great masterful principle which, in all the years of the past, has given us plenty and prosperity."

On Saturday he said to a delegation which called upon him with banners made of "sheets of home-made tin":

"What we want in this country is a policy that will give to every American workingman American wages; a policy that will put enough money into the Treasury of the United States to run the Government; a policy that will bring back to us that period of prosperity and of plenty that we enjoyed for more than thirty years."

Later, on Saturday, he said to a delegation of workingmen:

"I cannot misunderstand—nobody can misunderstand—the meaning of these demonstrations on the part of the workingmen. They mean just one thing, and that thing is, that in the mind of every American workingman is the thought that this great American doctrine of protection is associated with wages and work, and linked with home, with family, with country, and with general prosperity. That, fellow-citizens, is what all these demonstrations signify. They mean that the people of this country want an industrial policy that is for America and for Americans. They mean they intend to return to that policy which lies at the foundation of our national prosperity, which is the safest prop to the National Treasury, and which is the bulwark of our industrial independence and financial honor."

Nobody would infer from these utterances that the great issue which overshadowed all others in the St. Louis convention was that of the currency, or the gold standard.

Major McKinley made another speech on Monday, which is notable as containing his first allusion, since his nomination, to the currency issue of the campaign. After his usual remarks about the boundless prosperity which a high tariff always brings, he said: "And, my countrymen, there is another thing the people are determined upon, and that is that a full day's work must be paid in a full dol ar." What is a "full dollar"? The silver men say a sixteen-to-one silver dollar is "full," and that a gold dollar is more than full. The Greenbackers always claimed that a greenback was a "full dollar." Suppose the St. Louis platform, instead of mentioning the gold standard, had compromised on the declaration: "Resolved, That we are in favor of a full dollar for a full day's work," what would have been the effect upon the country? Would the business interests have accepted that as a satisfactory assurance that, with McKinley as President, there would be no danger of the country's passing to the silver standard? There are intimations that Hanna has decided to have Major McKinley make no more speeches at present, and this is a wise precaution, for if the strongest sound-money utterance that he can make after nearly a week of cogitation is that he is in favor of a "full dollar," the sooner he stops talking, the better.

President Cleveland's deliverance against the free-coinage madness on Wednesday week seems to have been what the sound-money men in the Democratic party were waiting for, though they should not have needed to be thus taken by the ear, as it were, in order to make them do their duty. The most shameful feature of the canvass for the Chicago convention has been the cowardice and inactivity of the element in the party which believes in the gold standard, and which knows how disastrous the silver policy would prove, not only to the nation if it could be enacted into law, but to the Democratic organization if it should be made the platform next month. While the free-coinage men have everywhere been earnest and zealous, the sound-money men have done practically nothing to stem the tide. It is the simple truth to say that more work has been done by Democratic public men and journals for the right side in the South, where it required great courage to oppose the overwhelming sentiment, than in the North, where the men who advocate the gold standard have the people with them. Here, for example, is the great State of New York—which should have led off in the demand for a sound-currency plank at Chicago weeks ago—waiting until a few days before the national convention to define its position, and thus throwing away all the influence that it should have exerted before the delegates meet on the 7th of July.

The favor lent the free-coinage idea by the Democrats of Maine will surprise only those who are not familiar with the political history of that State. It is the one corner of the East where, during the last twenty years, the soft-money fallacy has secured a foothold. In 1878 the Greenbackers, or Nationals, carried one of the five congressional districts outright, and another with the help of the Democratic voters, while in each of the other three the Republican candidates received fewer votes than were divided between the Democrats and Nationals. In the September election of 1880 a fusion of the Opposition defeated the Republicans on the governorship and in two congressional districts, while Reed was saved by only 117 majority and one of his colleagues by but 467. Many people jumped to the conclusion that Garfield was going to lose the country two months later, but before November the Republicans of Maine had recovered their hold of that State, while Greenbackism elsewhere in the country cut but a small figure. The poison of cheap money, however, has never been entirely eliminated from the Maine system, and such a recurrence of the attack as is now seen must be regarded as liable to happen at any time.

The Democratic State convention in Florida illustrates the possibilities which were open if the sound-money members of the party throughout the country had made the fight they ought. This commonwealth is bordered by States that have been carried by the silverites, and Senator Call has always been a blatant advocate of free coinage. But the friends of sound money, under the leadership of the Jacksonville *Citizen*, insisted upon making a fight, and in last week's convention they defeated the free-coinage men on a square test, and rejected Call as a delegate to Chicago, a majority of the delegation chosen being for the maintenance of the gold standard. This ele-

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ment in the South has been greatly hampered by the inaction of those Northern Democrats who believe in the gold standard, and their apparent readiness to let the silverites have their way at Chicago without a protest. If the Democrats of New York had served notice upon the country last March that free coinage was not to be thought of, and that a silver platform would destroy all chance of party success next fall, other Southern States than Florida would have "turned down" their Calls, and sent sound-money men to Chicago. The salvation of the party is not impossible even now, but it is infinitely harder than it need have been.

The death of Gen. Bristow deprives the country of a man of great intellectual force, who was also a moral hero. Most people have forgotten that he was the candidate of the better element of the Republican party for the Presidential nomination in 1876—the year when Hayes was nominated—and that he received 113 votes in the convention, the other leading candidates being Blaine, Conkling, and O. P. Morton. Most people have forgotten the circumstances that caused him to be chosen by the better element as their candidate. Gen. Bristow was Secretary of the Treasury under President Grant. The whiskey frauds, implicating some of the President's most intimate friends, including his private secretary, Gen. Babcock, were unearthed at this time, either at the instance of the Secretary or with his active coöperation. Gen. Grant's mental constitution was such that any attack upon his immediate friends became an attack upon himself, and Gen. Bristow was somewhat later forced to resign. The fact that he would not bend a hair's breadth in the prosecution of the Whiskey Ring to accommodate the interests of the private secretary or the prejudices of his chief, gave him a powerful hold on the consciences of his countrymen. Of course it was charged that he was doing it all for political effect, whereas it was with the greatest reluctance that he allowed his name to be used at Cincinnati, and with the conviction that he could not be nominated. He simply yielded to the necessity that there should be some rallying-point for the members of the party who could not follow Blaine, Conkling, or Morton.

There was an element of humor in the situation evolved last week by the Senate bond-issue investigating committee, which partly offsets the sense of humiliation felt by all readers of the proceedings. The committee, or at all events its free-coinage majority, came to New York determined to prove that the contract of 1895 was a dishonest and infamous collusion, and they apparently had little doubt of their ability to do so. Before the examination of witnesses had lasted two days the silver committeemen were in a sort of panic, and were refusing to ask any further questions of the witnesses, simply because the answers already made had upset so completely the committee's theory. What their now adjourned investigation has disclosed is exactly what all newspaper readers were perfectly aware of a year ago, that banking experts went to Washington in January, 1895, to warn the Government that a financial crisis was impending; that the crisis was near at hand by the close of January; that the Secretary of the Treasury sounded several New York bankers on the chances of a foreign bond issue, and received unfavorable answers; that eventually, when action could no longer be deferred, the leading international houses of New York were applied to for the purchase of gold, and that terms were at last agreed upon. Most of last week's extraordinary cross-examination of the witnesses seemed to be conducted on the theory that Mr. Belmont went to Washington in January to propose the purchase, by his foreign correspondents, of a new Government bond issue. Any answer remotely suggesting such a purpose was hailed with glee by the committee, and the keenness of their disappointment when they failed to prove the fact was evident.

Strange as it may seem, the inquiries of the committee virtually stopped with this. There were other lines of inquiry not only open to the committee, but properly involved in their investigation. Any one would suppose, for instance, that the following questions would necessarily have suggested themselves: Why did the syndicate of 1895 make so wide a difference in their bid for an ordinary bond and for a gold bond? What was involved in the syndicate's contract pledge to protect the Treasury? Why were the large European bankers reluctant to buy our bonds? Not one of these questions was put by the learned Senators, and when Mr. Morgan, at the close of a purposeless cross-questioning, asked permission to go into some of these further phases of the matter, he was shut off with a promptness which left no doubt as to what part of the truth the inquisitors preferred not to have on record. Over the remarkable suggestions and queries of the committee on points of foreign exchange and banking, we are glad to draw a veil of charity. It is possible that Senator Vest, Senator Jones, and Senator Walthall have obtained, during their official visit to New York, some much-needed information on these business questions. We wish we could hope that they would use it.

Those nails which Mr. Chamberlain was driving into the coffin of Cobdenism do not seem to have met the Scriptural requirement of being fastened in a sure place by a master of assemblies. In fact, nail-driving is notoriously an extra-hazardous occupation, and bruised thumbs and bad language are a frequent product. Mr. Chamberlain is an expert at concealing his own discomfiture, but even he cannot cover up the general condemnation in England of his "happy-thought" scheme for an Imperial Customs Union. The Congress of Chambers of Commerce, before which he first broached it, gave it the go-by almost contemptuously, and responsible statesmen in various colonies at once declared it wholly chimerical. The *Economist* makes a ghastly show of the whole thing, as it has before had occasion to do with some of Mr. Chamberlain's colonial grandiloquence. It points out, in the first place, the extraordinary absurdity of supposing that the way to reconcile two opposing views is to offer a third to which each of them is equally opposed. The protectionist colonies will never give in to free-trade England, or vice versa. Very well, says Chamberlain, let each abandon its principles and practice under the name of "a third course." This, says the *Economist*, with cruel disregard of a lucid intellect, is sheer and unintelligible stupidity. It then shows that Mr. Chamberlain, as usual, had gayly made his proposals without any idea of what the actual facts were, and produces the figures of colonial trade to prove that his scheme would be entirely unworkable even if it were conceivable that it might be adopted.

The literary as well as the political duello continues to flourish in France, if we may judge by the exchange of shots now in progress between Zola and Gaston Deschamps. The latter, in a review of 'Rome' in the *Temps*, gave some examples of the way in which the novelist had "documented" himself for his work. The documenting, in fact, had in some cases gone perilously near to slavish and literal copying of authorities, of which Deschamps furnished several delicious examples. Zola made a furious return-fire in *Figaro*, disdaining to mention his adversary by name, but calling him an "assassin," a "scratcher of paper," a "library rat," and other sweetly reasonable things. It is rather amusing to find him admitting, or, rather, boasting, after all this fanfaronade, that Deschamps was quite right in accusing him of plagiarism. There was much more of it in 'Rome' than had been charged. Of course he had read books about Rome, and of course he had been at no particular pains to see that phrases, passages, or perhaps whole pages were not transferred bodily to his novel. That was "the right of a novelist." As for those vermin of critics, when they had done the work and won the fame that he had, it would be time for them to open their heads. Deschamps, in his turn, argues that there are rights of critics as well as authors, quotes from a private letter of Zola's, on another occasion, fulsomely praising the critic whom he now reviles, and serves notice that the great man will hear from him further in this matter.

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THE REPUBLICAN NOMINEE.

McKINLEY'S nomination has been for some months a foregone conclusion, and he is, in our opinion, the proper nominee for a party in the condition of the Republican party—bereft of true leaders, without any cause or idea in its keeping, and without settled views on finance. He is exactly fitted for the place he has got. The party has been searching for him ever since Blaine's death. There has not been a time since 1861 when the country so much needed a man of strong character and clear views as this year. In 1860 it got a man of clear views, because its own views were clear. Lincoln led to victory a party which, as Cromwell said of his russet-coated captains, "knew what it wanted, and loved what it knew." McKinley is going to lead a party which does not know what it wants, except money, and holds no clear views on anything, human or divine. McKinley's absence of settled convictions about leading questions of the day, and his want of clear knowledge of any subject, make him emphatically the round man in the round hole. If the party had nominated anybody else, it would have made a great blunder. Even Reed would have been a mistake, for, if a trimmer, he is not muddle-headed.

The alarm of the country over the virtual nomination of McKinley in advance of the convention has forced a large number of silver men to turn gold men and put a gold plank in the platform. So far so good. It saves us, for the present at least, from the execution of McKinley's plan of turning all the silver products of the country into coin and making them legal tender. But that is about all it does. It makes it pretty certain that we shall not deliberately get down on the silver basis. If we ever reach that, it will be by accident and by some especial display of weakness on McKinley's part. But should he be elected, as he probably will be (for the Democrats are making an awful show of themselves), there are certain dangers and risks to be guarded against and looked out for, which we beg to submit in their order.

What will be done about the currency will depend on the Congress to be elected next November, about the probable composition of which no one knows anything. There will be no restraint on it except the platform adopted last week, and what this will amount to no one can tell. McKinley will be no restraint, because he is virtually pledged to sign anything that Congress sends him. Avowing, as he does, that the opinions of the party on all subjects are virtually his, there is no reason why he should not keep this pledge. Secondly, he will have been elected, among other things, or rather before all things, as the champion of the tariff, or a representative of the protected interests, and to deliver the country from the horrors of the Wilson tariff. To get a new tariff passed, therefore, either in March or in December, will be his first duty. How will he do it? The Senate is filled to a majority with enraged silver men, who feel that he and the party have cheated them, and that silver is as much entitled to protection as wool or iron. In what way can they be induced to pass a tariff? In one way only—by "doing something for silver." There are various things one can "do" for silver without openly violating the platform. One is buying it, which McKinley has steadily advocated. We do not think this way will be adopted. But in order to pass a tariff, some way will have to be found. A large body of the public want silver, and almost worship it. Mr. Teller's shedding tears over it in the convention shows what a place the metal has found in the hearts of the people. Silver is, we think, the first raw metal that has ever been wept over. Iron is twice as patriotic and has done five hundred times as much for civilization, but it has never drawn tears, in the pig state. It has to be turned into a weapon, like a sword or halbert, in order to move strong men.

McKinley's character is so vague, and so little forecast of what he is likely to do can be got either from his career or from his language, that a good deal of uncertainty must mark the first year or two of his administration, at a period when certainty is of priceless value. We must not overlook the fact—the experience of the human race forbids us—that he has a certain number of unpaid creditors—not legal creditors, it is true, but still creditors whose claims on him it is difficult for any ordinary man to resist who has many favors to bestow. Our sole guarantee that they will not be improperly rewarded lies in McKinley's private character, which is, we believe, very good; but we must remember that, in dealing with them, one virtue will have to contend with another—gratitude with the sense of public duty. The experiment of putting an insolvent man at the head of the government is one never before, we believe, tried in a constitutional state, and it will be watched with interest.

Nothing marks more clearly than McKinley's nomination the mistake of turning nominating conventions into vast excited crowds, doing their work under the eyes of a larger crowd, more excited still. There can be little doubt that the gold in the platform was forced on the convention by the business men, and that, had the convention been a deliberative body, McKinley's unfitness to stand on any such platform would have been recognized. But the pledges given by the delegates before they ever met or compared notes, made it impossible to choose any other. About the platform they were free, but about the candidate they were tied up, so that they were compelled to put him astride a body of doctrine with which he has never been in thorough sympathy. But the formal recognition of the doctrine by the party at least insures discussion, and encourages us to hope that there will be no more difficulty in killing the silver heresy through the country by free debate than there has been in getting such a collection of politicians as met at St. Louis to declare for the gold standard. What is debauching and will continue to debauch the people is the legislation to enable individuals to make money, which goes by the name of "protection to native industry." Every man who sees this wants his share.

THE ST. LOUIS PLATFORM.

APPROVAL of the gold-standard plank adopted by the Republican national convention must not be taken as approval of the remainder of the platform, or as condonation of it. We are aware that platform deliverances on subjects not of vital interest are considered by the public very much as stage-thunder, intended to carry on the movement of the play, and therefore not worthy of much attention even if it is bad *per se*. The tribe who make their living out of politics take advantage of this indifference to side issues, to weave into the platform all sorts of fraudulent schemes, so that they can go before Congress at a future time and make claims upon the public confidence on the ground that they have the authority of the national platform, the broadest mandate of the party, for doing so. Thus platforms are constructed in log-rolling fashion like river-and-harbor bills, so that, apart from the chief and vital issue or issues, there may be a collection of the rottenest material that the country affords. We think that the St. Louis platform, aside from the gold-standard plank, answers this description.

The "arraignment" paragraph is usually placed at the beginning, and is made very hot for the opposing party. As a general thing the opposing party deserves some buffeting. The Democratic party deserves a good deal, but mostly of a different kind from what it receives in the bill of particulars. Among other accusations laid at its door is this:

> "In administrative management it has ruthlessly sacrificed indispensable revenue, entailed an unceasing deficit, eked out ordinary current expenses with borrowed money, piled up the public debt by $262,000,000 in time of peace, forced an adverse balance of trade, kept a perpetual menace hanging over the redemption fund, *pawned American credit to alien syndicates*, and reversed all the measures and results of successful Republican rule."

We shall not go back to the causes of the "unceasing deficit" of revenue, although it would be easy to find them in the unimpeachable testimony of Charles Foster, Secretary of the Treasury under President Harrison. Let that pass in order to reach the "pawning of American credit to alien syndicates." What is meant by that? It means that the Administration now in power is blamable for selling bonds to maintain the public credit. It admits of no other construction. Is any particular stress laid on the word "alien"? If bonds are to be sold at all, they are to be sold at

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the best price offered. The best price can be obtained only in the widest market. Shut out the foreign bids and you make a home monopoly—the very charge that produces the greatest outcry even when the charge is false. Any Secretary of the Treasury who should limit bids to American buyers—any one who should advertise "no foreigners need apply"—would be impeached by Congress and universally execrated. Therefore the gravamen of the arraignment is that the present Administration is censurable for selling bonds to maintain the gold standard.

No matter how the deficit came about, this is the real crime. How does this sound, how does this look, beside a plank affirming that the existing gold standard must be maintained? It looks as though the arraignment plank and the gold-standard plank had been drafted by two different sets of hands, or sub-committees, and slapped together without any comparison of views either before or after the drafting, and that the arraignment set did not know what they were talking about. For, as surely as the sun rises, the McKinley Administration will have to sell bonds to redeem the promises of its own platform if it is confronted by the same conditions as those which have four times confronted the Cleveland Administration. We think that it will be confronted by such conditions, and that the result will be due to the extravagant and reckless appropriations made by the terrible Congress that has just adjourned.

There is so much else that is bad in this platform that we hardly know where to put our finger first. Foreign policy occupied a large share of the committee's attention, and while this part of it is not so bad as might have been expected, considering the stampede which Mr. Cleveland produced among Republican Congressmen by his Venezuelan message, it is essentially a Jingo production, offensive and undignified in tone, betraying the half-grown, loud-talking, self-asserting frame of mind, far removed from gentlemanly and civilized deportment and from the reserve which accompanies genuine courage and real strength. The slime of Henry Cabot Lodge is over it all. Our foreign policy, it says, should be firm, vigorous, and dignified, and for this reason we ought to have a great many expensive things, such as a Nicaragua Canal, a large navy, the Danish Islands, to be acquired by purchase, and "a much-needed naval station in the West Indies." All of these things, or any of them, will hasten the time when McKinley, if elected, will have to sell bonds to meet current expenses and maintain the gold standard. All or any of them will help to get us into foreign trouble which the whole American people, except a few speculators and contractors, are most deeply interested in avoiding. The Danish Islands are a misfortune to any country that possesses them. They were rejected by us after investigation when Mr. Seward was Secretary of State. "Much-needed naval station in the West Indies." That also was rejected by us after investigation when Gen. Grant was President. It now reappears in the St. Louis platform, for no better purpose than to let Mr. Lodge out of the bad scrape he fell into when he tried to out-Jingo President Cleveland and "got left."

As for the protective plank, it leaves McKinley looking almost as much of a misfit candidate as does the currency plank. "We are not pledged to any particular schedules." That is to say, do not fear, good people, that we shall break our leg a second time on the McKinley tariff. The platform is for a "reasonable application" of the protective principle; the awful inference lies on the surface that there have been unreasonable applications of it. "The country demands a right settlement, and then it wants rest." Business men say they want rest immediately, and dread nothing more than to be harried another four years by tariff agitation. Finally, the platform explicitly throws over the sugar bounty, which was a great and essential feature of the McKinley tariff. In other words, it is for McKinley, but not for McKinleyism.

THE SILVERITE SECESSION.

Senator Teller announced to the committee on resolutions at St. Louis, when his free-coinage plank was rejected, that he could not support a candidate standing on a gold platform. He is quoted as saying that the Republican party had become "the slave of Wall Street and Lombard Street," and that it was a matter of conscience with him to abandon it. This kind of talk seems to have been taken in good part by Senator Lodge, although nothing could have been more insulting except a charge that the majority of the committee and of the delegates had been bought with money. Lodge is reported to have replied, in a feeling manner, that he had the utmost respect for Teller, who had just described him and his associates on the committee as slaves of English bankers. Then the representatives of Utah, Idaho, Montana, and Nevada endorsed and repeated what Teller had said—in other words, took themselves out of the party. The Californian on the committee did not go so far. He contented himself with saying that his State would be lost to the Republicans by 40,000 majority, which is probably a gross exaggeration.

Next to the adoption of the gold-standard platform, the secession of the silverites is the best thing that has happened since the repeal of the Sherman act in 1893. It is beneficial in a number of ways. It accentuates the fight on the money question, makes the division of public sentiment deeper, prevents future straddling, and, last but not least, it probably holds the Senate against the McKinley tariff fanatics. At all events, it relegates the tariff to the second place in the campaign, and furnishes opportunity for a similar division and secession at Chicago in case a free-coinage platform is adopted there. With a free-coinage platform it would hardly be worth while for the Democrats in the East to nominate electoral tickets. They might better follow the example of Teller, Dubois, and Cannon, and abstain from further proceedings in the convention after the platform is adopted.

All signs point to the sharpest possible division on the silver issue—so sharp that the personality of McKinley will be mainly lost sight of. This will be a desirable feature of the campaign, in the East at all events, since his name inspires no enthusiasm here, even among Republicans. Anything which serves to put him in the background will be an advantage to the ticket, which will depend for success upon votes that would never be given to him except as an alternative to the silver standard and business chaos resulting therefrom. What the future may bring us tariff-wise cannot now be predicted, but the immediate danger is a financial crisis of the first magnitude growing out of a change in the standard of value. In comparison with this the tariff question, although unsettled, is relatively small. Nobody is going to change his opinions on this subject merely because circumstances have compelled him to subordinate this issue to another one for the present. Nor will the fight be given up for that reason.

How much the secession of Teller and his faction will amount to in electoral votes cannot be known until after the two platforms and the two tickets are announced. It is our belief that no Northern State east of the Mississippi River will be found in the free-coinage column in November, and that of the States west of that boundary the party favoring the gold standard has the best prospects in Kansas, Nebraska, the two Dakotas, and Wyoming. Some doubts have been expressed as to Iowa, but the doubters have not made account of the sound-money Democrats of that State, who constituted more than one-third of the recent State convention. These men have already begun to organize against free silver, like their friends in Chicago, and they may be depended on to fight. There will be no whipping-in after the convention, because the business interests of these men are at stake. They have no option, because they are fighting for their bread and butter.

In Indiana the contest will be sharp, but we have every confidence that the gold standard will win. The same result will follow in Michigan, although the Republicans there have been under bad leadership. In that State the line of division runs as sharply through the Democratic as through the Republican ranks. In the South we find many encouraging signs. Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky, and West Virginia are almost certain to be ranged against free coinage, while the chances of defeating Bland in Missouri and Harris

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in Tennessee are fairly good. It may turn out that the Republican majority in the next Congress will not be as large as it is in the present one, but that will be no misfortune to the party. The shocking blunders in the present Congress were due mainly to the unwieldy strength of the party. If they had had only twenty or thirty majority, Speaker Reed would not have lost control of them. He would have been able, in all probability, to keep them from passing the extravagant appropriation bills which constitute the present menace to the Treasury reserve. Hence the Republicans can lose some of their top-heaviness in Congress with advantage to themselves.

Whether the Teller secessionists go to the Democrats or to the Populists, or set up a party of their own, makes little difference in the long run, though the probability is that all the silverite factions will come together eventually. Meanwhile they have nominated Teller for President, and have put forth an insidious and deceptive address to the people which it will probably be necessary to answer a good many times before the end of the campaign. Almost every line of it is either an unsupported assertion or a manifest falsehood. Take this one as a sample:

> "The country cannot much longer exist free and independent against all the rest of the world, nor can its people be free in the noblest sense of the term, if the United States, a debtor nation, shall follow a policy dictated by creditor nations."

What is meant by existing free and independent *against* all the rest of the world? The phrase has a quasi-belligerent ring. Ever since the close of the Revolutionary war we have existed free from and independent of other nations, and we have been free and independent *against* them whenever we have been at war with them, which has been only five years out of one hundred and six. These facts show that we can be free and independent of them or against them as the case may be, although we have been a debtor nation all the time and have found it profitable to ourselves to be so. There is no external force compelling us to be a debtor nation. Debt is incurred by borrowing money, and there is no law compelling men to borrow. They borrow when they find it advantageous to do so if they can find lenders. The most unfortunate borrowers are those who cannot find lenders, and the most unfortunate lenders are those whose borrowers cannot pay. Ability to pay means generally that the borrower has made a profit, or at all events that he has not made a loss. In the jargon of the Populist camp, it is always the borrower who is suffering because he cannot pay. He is the object of commiseration, whereas the one to be really pitied is the lender. It is his money that has "gone up the spout." The borrower has had the use of it. He may have consumed it or lost it in bad speculations, but evidently the lender is the real sufferer if the borrower cannot pay. If he can pay, however, that fact shows that the loan has been a mutual advantage, which is a gain to the world.

But the bolters tell us that the people "cannot be free in the noblest sense of the term if the United States, a debtor nation, shall follow a policy *dictated* by creditor nations." Do they mean that foreigners are dictating our policy without our knowing it? If so, the wrong term has been used, because dictation implies knowledge on the part of dictator and dictatee. If our policy is framed for us abroad without our knowledge, then the word deception should be used in place of dictation. No evidence is offered to show that foreigners are using either deception or dictation as to our currency system. As a matter of fact they are concerned only with their own. We have tried three times to get them to change their system. They have never tried once to induce us to change ours. It is evident that in the single sentence quoted from the bolters' address there are four or five falsehoods or suggestions of falsehoods—about one to each line. We judge from a cursory examination that the proportion of lies to truth in the whole address is not less than 16 to 1.

THAT "INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT."

In this country nothing in politics comes suddenly. Almost all waves of popular feeling are prepared or stimulated by persons who are more knowing than the masses. This was distinctly true of the Jingo movement, for instance. For two years a band of politicians kept the air full of threatenings against England, and abuse of Cleveland, in the interest of what was called a "more vigorous foreign policy." As time rolled on, the talk grew fiercer. The flag was hoisted on all the schoolhouses as a measure of defiance. The children were drilled, and there finally arose a call for war, not with England, but with anybody, as a means of moral discipline. If we did not go to war with somebody, the Jingoes said, there was no knowing what would become of our character. "Patriotism" ceased to have any civic meaning, to connote love of law, or order, or integrity, or good government. It meant simply for awhile a desire to fight somebody, or admiration for people who were going to fight. With the Venezuela outburst, Jingoism totally collapsed. After "standing behind Cleveland" a few minutes, the Jingoes all dispersed to their homes, and became utterly peaceable, showing that if agitators only kept quiet, the people had no thought of fighting anybody.

Very much the same thing has happened with regard to the silver agitation, except that it has had a little more assistance from events. The panic of 1873 combined with the fall of silver to start it, but its absurdities, in our belief, would have killed it long ago had it not been nourished by the body of much more instructed men known as "bimetallists." The ignorant masses have constantly heard from these people, during the last twenty years, that although the extreme view of the silverites was idle, there was something behind it; that the scarcity of gold had lowered prices; that a double standard composed of both silver and gold was possible, through international agreement; that the hated England was the main obstacle to this agreement, and that our business was to force her into it. This talk of professors and "philosophers" has kept this pest of the modern world alive for a quarter of a century, and has caused the holding of three absurd conferences, in which we were almost the only members who really desired success. The others attended and debated to humor us. In not one of them did there appear to be the smallest hope that ultimate agreement could be reached, but the preaching at home continued. The hope was constantly held out, and is held out to-day, that another conference will be held, when we shall get what we want. This passion for, and promise of, a conference keeps the ignorant masses of the South and West in constant expectation and constant irritation. What they are waiting for is not a conference to see whether a double standard would be a good thing, but a conference that will end in bringing it about. They think England is the main obstacle and they want to fight her. This was actually the explanation Lodge gave, a few months ago, in a letter to a friend in England, of the excitement over Venezuela.

The latest contributor to this literature of mischief is Mr. W. C. Whitney. He printed a letter in Monday's press full of wise reasoning as to the danger and folly of free coinage just now. But, as usual, he assured the silverites that their cause was good and its triumph was coming:

> "There has never been a time when the prospects of international action favorable to the joint standard were at all as promising as at the present moment. But an ill-advised, unsuccessful attempt here would discredit the cause the world over. What is the situation as regards this? From the discussion of the last twenty years, it has come to pass that among the persons in Europe who are trained, recognized scientists upon monetary and economic questions, scarcely one is not at the present moment advocating the desirability of the joint standard as the real solution of the monetary difficulties of the world. This includes every professor engaged in teaching or lecturing on these subjects in the universities of Great Britain. They are agreed upon the desirability of it, and that it is entirely practicable if established and maintained by agreement of the principal commercial nations."

This is the kind of talk which, coming from such quarters, keeps the silver movement alive in this country, and keeps, or will keep us for some time to come in constant danger of its success. We deny totally the assertion that in Europe among "trained, recognized scientists upon monetary and economic questions there is scarcely one who is not at this moment advocating the desirability of a joint stan-

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dard as the real solution of the monetary difficulties of the world." The direct contrary of this is nearer the truth. If Mr. Whitney does not wish to be accused of deceiving his countrymen, he will give them the names of these persons and samples of what they say. He is simply repeating here an absurd statement of Mr. Balfour's, who is a fair specimen himself of the "philosophers" who want a double standard. There is hardly one recognized authority in England on financial questions who desires or believes in the possibility of a double standard, or would think for one moment of doing business in it if it were established. There are professors who preach it, but, like our "ethical" professors here, few of those who have the English pound sterling in their keeping pay any attention to them. But give us their names, Mr. Whitney, and the names of their universities. Nothing does more to bring about this immense silver delusion, with its disastrous consequences, and to make men like McKinley the leaders of the American people, than this sort of talk. As long as the famous "international agreement," with the foreign "scientists" behind it, is kept hanging before the eyes of the public as a strong probability, we shall never have business peace or stability.

One by one the arguments of the bimetallists have deserted them. The earliest one, that the scarcity of gold had lowered prices, has gone, partly because so many causes are at work to cheapen modern commodities that it is impossible to connect it by proof with any one; partly because the supply of gold has within a few years increased enormously and is still increasing. The second one, that the gold standard was in any country causing scarcity of money to people who had collateral or credit to borrow on, has perished under the smiles of real business men. The third one, that, absurd or not, the nations are going to agree to give silver or any other commodity an arbitrary price in a conference which England is to attend "on her knees," is kept afloat in default of anything better. It is the sole support to-day of the silver movement. It is the expectation or hope of this which keeps the agitation alive among the masses, as well as among rational bimetallists. Concerning fanatics of the Teller type, or ignorant men of the "Coin" school, we have nothing to say. "Non ragioniam di lor, ma guarda e passa." We appeal to sensible and patriotic bimetallists of the community to try silence for a few years. Their cause is a lost cause, like that of the Stuarts or of the Confederacy. It may be well to have fought in it, but it is better now to forget it. The remembrance does nothing but turn away the minds of their countrymen from frugality and industry, as the true sources of wealth, and fill their hearts with bitterness against the great managers of money at home and abroad, to whom civilization in every country is so much indebted, and to whom, whatever their faults may be, it is of even more importance than to any one else that the standard of value should be kept as far as possible steady, that credit should be kept intact, and that all workers of every nation should, about money as about other things, be clothed and in their right mind.

THE TORY COLLAPSE.

The breakdown of the English Ministry on the Education bill, in spite of the largeness of their majority, is doubtless due in part to the public disappointment. Although their majority in the House, owing to small majorities in various counties and boroughs, was in the beginning 150 (now 146), it was in reality, if the House fully represented the voting population, only 14. The knowledge that it has nearly half the public behind it has, therefore, made the Liberal Opposition much fiercer and more truculent than its strength in Parliament appeared to warrant. It has been so strenuous on the Education bill that the Government has abandoned it with a somewhat ludicrous promise that it will go to work at it again next year.

But the trouble goes further back than the Education bill. The Ministry came in with a great flourish of trumpets, especially about foreign affairs. Almost immediately after it took office occurred the Armenian fiasco. Nothing has occurred in English history more humiliating or more shocking to the moral and religious public, especially to the Nonconformists, than Lord Salisbury's standing by idly and allowing the massacres to go on in Armenia, and then pretending that he had not provided for this contingency in making the Berlin treaty, and that the cession of Cyprus was not meant as a pledge that this sort of thing should not happen again. He was easily convicted of evasion out of the speeches he made when he came back with Disraeli, as well as out of the treaty itself. He has cut an equally lamentable figure in the Egyptian matter. After efforts to conceal from the House of Commons what the advance in the Sudan was for, it has crept out, through the Italian Green Book, that it was intended in its inception to help the Italians in Abyssinia, that Salisbury's dispatches were almost dictated at Rome, and that the story of Dervish restlessness was a pure invention.

So much as regards foreign policy. At home the Ministry were to avoid the Liberal folly in attempting great constitutional changes, such as home rule for Ireland and the reform of the House of Lords, and confine themselves to domestic reform in the interests of the poor and the old. There is no sign of any measure of this kind. Mr. Chamberlain, who was the leading apostle of this sort of thing, seems to have withdrawn his attention from it wholly, and is occupying himself in building up an Imperial Zollverein, amid the jeers and laughter of his old associates. Only two capital bits of legislation have been produced after a whole autumn and winter of reflection and preparation. Both are what is called class legislation. One is for the benefit of the impoverished landholders, the other for the benefit of the Anglican clergy. The first relieves the land from $7,500,000 of taxes by which landlords, not farmers, would profit. The other not only saves the church schools from extinction, but alters the whole school system as settled, after forty years of agitation, by Mr. W. E. Forster in 1870. It abolishes the elected school boards, and gives the government of the schools to the county councils. It removes the limit of four dollars and a half a child, given as aid by the Government to every denominational school, and, worse than all, reintroduces religious instruction into the schools on the demand of the parents, and allows it to be given by the clergyman of their choice.

The importance of this is that Dissenters are satisfied with the public schools. Among them denominational schools can hardly be said to exist. Denominational schools are, as a rule, Church or Roman Catholic schools. It is these which have mainly profited by the Government money. But as time has gone on, and as their supporters have become impoverished, the subscriptions to them have diminished, and the ability to profit by the Government aid by producing pupils, has diminished with it. They were more and more threatened with extinction when the Conservatives returned to power. The first act of the new Ministry, as we see, was not to improve the public schools, but to raise the importance of the denominational schools and discredit all others. This is the measure which the Liberals in Parliament have been opposing tooth and nail. Now that Irish home rule is out of the way, there can hardly be a doubt that the great body of the Liberal party in the country is again behind them. It is most likely that the Land bill will share the fate of the Education bill.

But there is more still. It is now acknowledged, or at least not denied, that Mr. Balfour's leadership of the House has been extremely bad. In fact, we can recall no instance when any one in such a position, with a majority of 150 behind him, has been compelled to abandon important legislation in his first session. This alone would be a confession of failure. But it has been long foreseen. Mr. Balfour's rise into the front rank during the Irish crisis was one of the strange episodes of that remarkable period. He was one of the four young men of fortune and fashion who, in earlier days, used to go down to the House mainly to "guy" Gladstone. He was not much known otherwise. His assumption of the Irish Secretaryship excited general surprise. But he filled it in a way that was

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at that time immensely gratifying to London society. His immediate resort to coercion delighted the clubs. His indifference to the vulgar Irish abuse delighted the drawing-rooms. He became a hero in society, as "the brave Mr. Balfour." His oratory, halting at first, improved greatly, and he locked the Irish up, like a colonel administering martial law, so resolutely that he came out of the home-rule fight with all the honors there were for a Conservative. After Gladstone's victory in 1892, he was in opposition, resting, so to speak, on his laurels. But his character as well as capacity seems to have been strangely misconceived. He is really a charming metaphysical philosopher, and his conversion into an administrator of perturbed provinces, a political economist, and the leader of a stormy assembly at a great crisis in the world's affairs, has probably astonished him as much as anybody. Both he and Mr. Chamberlain are finding out that to be a statesman something more is necessary than to be a Liberal Unionist.

WHY ITALY IS NOT RICH.

ROME, June 10, 1896.

IT is a curious fact that while, in modern times, Italy has become to a certain extent synonymous with poverty, it was in ancient times regarded, as it is in fact, potentially the richest country in Europe. No other part of Europe presents such varied and abundant resources for development, and no other makes such slight demands on the individual for existence. Why, under such circumstances, the people and the Government alike should be at the foot of the list of nations enjoying the privilege of controlling their own fortunes, must seem to the outsider a problem of difficult solution. I will try, in a superficial way, to show why this is so.

Firstly, the Government is poor because it is prodigal and dishonest, not in its relations with its creditors, but in those with its factors. In gathering its income, the dishonesty of its functionaries is the cause of the taxation falling oppressively on the classes which a wise statesmanship would protect and make more prosperous, leaving the minimum of burthen on those who are capable of bearing the maximum. Italy is governed in the interest of the wealthy classes—a fact which has the result, on one side, of diminishing responsibility and enterprise in those who ought to lead in the latter and feel the fullest weight of the former, and on the other of discouraging thrift in those who ought to be encouraged in economy. The collection of taxes in the more abundant springs is directed by favoritism, by official prescription, and by bribery. An acquaintance who has large interests in Tuscany, in mines and real estate, said to me that he paid only the quarter of the tax which the law required, but added that he would willingly pay the whole if the law would allow him to import the artificial fertilizers free of duty. Another bought a house and farm, including the furniture of the former, and, as the impost on house and land transfer is heavy, and that on furniture is light, the price of the house and farm was put at a fraction of the value, and that of the furniture swelled to fill the total to the amount actually paid. There is no income tax in the sense in which that term is used in England and the United States, but a so-called professional income tax, which was, by the old law, fixed at seventeen per cent. on half the estimated income, and which is somewhat increased by the new law of Sonnino, in which there are variations according to the sources of the income. But in the *assessment* of the income, political and politico-personal influence passes for so much that, to use the words of a functionary to myself, if one has influence in the Government it is possible to have the assessment made at a small fraction of the real income. Now as the small incomes are not easy to disguise, and their possessors have no influence in official regions, it follows that the owners of them cannot escape their taxes, but the larger incomes are so easily disguised that they pay only on a fraction. Thus, one of the most prominent physicians of Rome, whose income is estimated at from one hundred to one hundred and fifty thousand francs, is known to pay on one of 7,000, and I am told of a Deputy whose income is certainly 100,000 a year, but who pays on 200 a month. Wherever concealment is possible this is the case, more or less, and, the income of the state being of necessity fixed, it follows that the poorer citizens pay the heaviest taxes in proportion. The secondary consequence is the general contempt of the law, and the universal evasion of it when possible.

The Government is again impoverished in the expenditure, and especially in that on public works. It is enough to see how the railways are built to form an idea of the openings for rascality and fraud. They are not built by contract, but on estimate. A building company estimates that a certain line will cost a certain sum, and receives the job, which is always indeed a "job." The Government guarantees a certain income per kilometre, and the constructor makes the road as long as possible; but when the grant (which is made in bonds of the state) for the amount authorized is exhausted, the constructor coolly tells the Ministry that the road must stop there unless the Ministry makes another grant, which is of course done, and the invariable result is that the original estimate is nearly, or quite, or even more than, doubled, with the consequence that none of the roads, as they are made, ever pay their expenses and interest on their cost of construction. More than that, they are so burdened with deadheads that it is estimated that only 40 per cent. of the passengers they carry pay full fare, the remaining 60 per cent. paying from nothing up to 75 per cent. of the fare. Deputies and Senators travel free everywhere in the kingdom, but, as the state pays a block sum for their privilege, it is not a dead loss, though as every Deputy who travels insists on having a whole compartment for himself, the road becomes anything but a profitable one. Worse than this: while writing this letter I note, in the proceedings of the Chamber of Deputies, the following statement made by a reforming Deputy:

"I remember to have seen in an express train a child of eight years, son of a high employee, travel alone in a compartment of eight places. Another case: these gentlemen, the employees, are not content with filling the carriages of the Italian Society, but fill even those that come from abroad for the use of international travellers. The other day a gentleman who wanted to go from Rome to Vienna could not take a seat in the car reserved for the international service to which he had a right, because, in a compartment of eight places, a high railway employee had installed himself comfortably. It was useless to appeal to the courtesy of the station-master at Rome; it seems that he was helpless against his superior."

Every employee of both the great systems of railway has the right to make three journeys a year on each one, where he likes, and with his family, and the consequence is that some of them ruin themselves taking long railway journeys for which they have not the money to pay the expenses. And they are 60,000, with as many more pensioned off who have the same privilege; and, as all travellers know, the railway fare is the smallest part of the expense of a journey.

Another disastrous interference with the riches of the state is the system of taxing all business enterprises, after they have been established three years, at rates which in some cases swamp the profits, while idle capital, simply paying interest, escapes. A general income tax, equalizing all these interests in the incidence, would prevent all this injustice, but the influence of the personages who profit by the present system prevails to hinder it. Add to all these causes for the deficiency of income and excess of outgo the continual and all-pervading evasion of all forms of impost, and the very general feeling that it is a laudable thing to cheat the Government or to rob it, and it is clear that the state has a hard time of it to attain a balance of the budget, and of course the state is poor.

The population cannot be said to be poor, and on this subject there are great delusions abroad; but it is not as rich as it might be, and, in fact, in comparison with France and England, it may be said to be poor. But Lombardy, Piedmont, and parts of Tuscany compare well with other parts of Europe, even with France, with which the comparison would be most just. As a whole, Italy is getting rich even faster in proportion to the already acquired wealth than is France, the annual increase of total national wealth being estimated at a milliard of francs a year, or 2 per cent of the total. But it is impossible not to admit that Italy is not profiting by her natural facilities for enriching herself, except in parts of the extreme north, and the reason is simple—the people have not, as a rule, the ambition of getting rich. The Italian has the reputation of being lazy, and all who know the people know that it is quite the contrary. They are "indolent," which is another thing. The word is Italian, and has a correct Italian meaning, which is that one follows his "*indole*," or natural bent. Everybody who has had to deal with Italian laborers knows that they are among the best to be found, and, when they please to work, they require less supervision than most others. But, let a holiday come, a great *festa* of the people or the Church, and you could no more get them to lose the enjoyment of it for wages than you could get them to do a thing they had never been trained to. As a rule, the Italian, even of the lower classes, does not aspire to accumulate means; if he does, it is limited to the acquisition of a cabin and a piece of ground for a garden. The ambition to become rich and to accumulate for the sake of accumulation, which is the spring of what is called national prosperity, is wanting. There is a degree of contentment and *bonhomie*, under a condition approaching privation, which is remarkable, and the evident happiness of the lowest stratum of society, especially in the southern part of the peninsula, might well be envied by the people of more prosperous countries. No doubt this has a very important bearing on the question, Why is the Italian poor? and, in this direction, answers it satisfactorily, and explains why the nation, as a whole, is less progressive materially than, for instance, France, where all the

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lower classes are affected by the tendency to accumulate. This condition, is, however, yielding to the general human tendency, and the indication that the habit of saving is growing is in the fact that the accumulation of the sums in the postal savings-banks has reached the amount of fifteen hundred millions of lire ($300,000,000).

But there the classes join on a dead level of apathy. Beyond the most elementary accumulation the enterprise of the nation does not aspire. Except in the north, and especially about Milan, there is almost no disposition to embark in undertakings of a speculative nature, and this is a general reason why Italy lags behind the other European nations in the increase of prosperity. Whatever the cause of this aversion to investing money in new operations—whether apathy, indifference to increase of fortune, or distrust of the result—the fact is that the reluctance to embark in commercial or industrial affairs is phenomenal, and most of the serious undertakings in the country are carried on with foreign capital, though the accumulation in Italy is sufficient for all that needs to be done. This appears, in looking at it from the outside and without the study of occult motives, like an excessive timidity in business affairs, but it is most likely simple apathy. Thus we may see that in the production of wine, which ought to be the specialty of Italy—climate, soil, and general condition offering the peninsula a supremacy in it, both as to the variety and the treatment of the wines—in general there is a complete indifference as to quality or kind, and for many years the wine-growers were satisfied to produce the crudest material for treatment in France and Germany, while they could produce at home every variety of wine, from the lightest product of the high mountain region to the strongest wines known, in Sicily. It is true that, here and there, individuals are awaking to the advantages of home ripening of wines, but the greater part by far of the exportation is still due to the wine-makers of other countries, who ask for what may be considered as the raw material of the trade.

The fruit market is in the same condition. The climate and soil of the peninsula would, among all European countries, enable it to produce the greatest variety of fruits, both as to species and quality, and in a few cases, as if nature had tried to show the people the way, the fruits are of the finest quality. The peach, under cultivation, is equal to the best, but to find a choice variety, carefully and intelligently selected as in France or America, and put on the market with common attention to condition, is almost unknown. If one suggests to an Italian any such source of emolument, the general reply is, "Very good, but get us English capital and we will see." The same thing appears in the commonest kinds of business. It is not unknown to shoppers in Rome that a shopman will tell his customer that he has not an article, to avoid the trouble of hunting it out in his stock. The Germans and the Jews are coming largely into trade in Italy, and their ways are driving the old-fashioned Italians into desperation, and leaving them in many cases out of competition.

After all, though to the foreigner who comes into Italy for the first time it seems as if progress had stopped, and the country was content to be poor, one who has been here for thirty years can see that there is life, and, like Galileo, can say, "Eppur si muove." X.

MADAME DE CHASTENAY.—II.

PARIS, June 5, 1896.

WE left Mlle. de Chastenay conversing freely with Gen. Bonaparte at Châtillon, and receiving the confidences of the man who was soon to be the master of the world, playing with him at what is called in France the "petits jeux" (forfeits), and, in consequence of a *gage touché*, seeing a moment at her feet the man who afterwards saw Europe at his feet. Bonaparte left with Marmont; he did not go to Brittany. Mlle. de Chastenay learned that he had returned to Paris. "I don't pretend," she says, "to write history. I only know that there was in Paris a commotion; that Gen. Bonaparte, who was enrolled on the side of the Convention, or of its majority, and of the Directory which was soon to be created, defended the Tuileries and used his artillery, and that a decided victory consolidated a power which the nature of things then imposed." The allusion is to the thirteenth Vendémiaire, the day of the defeat of the royalist sections by the troops of the Convention commanded by Bonaparte.

Times had become hard, and the Chastenays were almost in want. The assignats, the paper money of the day, had lost all their value. "Their nominal value was such that if you wanted four gold louis, you would have to give twenty-five thousand francs in assignats." The Chastenays had to go almost without bread, and had to sell from time to time a watch or a jewel to get a little flour, which they baked themselves. Mlle. de Chastenay was sometimes in Burgundy with her father and sometimes in Paris. She has curious notes on life in Paris at that period:

"People lived much concentrated in quarters, for want of carriages. It was perhaps this cause which constituted the Faubourg St.-Germain one of the representatives of the old régime. The Faubourg Saint-Honoré remained more sociable, and ended by becoming, in some respects, a set; and the Chaussée d'Antin became peopled with the new rich. It was there that were invented the Greek costumes and the antique furniture; and this innovation, shorn of some grotesque exaggerations, renewed the taste and gave a new impulse to art. . . . The style of living of our old acquaintances was of great simplicity. Each one carried a bit of candle to mount the staircase of a friend; toilets, receptions, lodgings—everything was simple; people made a point of being simple and economical in everything; they only wished not to be wanting in elegance. The time thus spent was generally found sweet by those who enjoyed it."

Mlle. de Chastenay, who was very cultivated, began to make for herself a name in what was called the republic of letters. She became notorious by a translation of Anne Radcliffe's 'Mysteries of Udolpho.' The marriage of her brother, Henri de Chastenay, to Mlle. de Laguiche was a great event. The Laguiches were great landowners in Burgundy. The times grew less hard; the revolutionary régime was losing its worst features; there was a sort of renewal of life in society.

"Paris offered then a singular spectacle. It was the time of the triumph of the Chaussée d'Antin, the time when Madame Récamier, handsome as the day, affected to appear everywhere with a simple fichu of linen on her head, always disposed in the same manner. The young ladies who by birth belonged to the old régime followed the new style of elegance and luxury, all the more because it harmonized with a small outlay. The young men had their hair cut *à la Titus;* the young women had it arranged after the busts of antiquity. A slight muslin with a knot of ribbon composed an exquisite *parure*, and only very cross old ladies regretted powder and high-heeled shoes. I do not consider these details superfluous."

The émigrés were coming back one by one, sometimes with false passports, sometimes after having succeeded in getting their names erased from the lists made during the Terror. They appeared like strangers, and were "doing" Paris—a Paris which they had never known. Of all the friendships which Mlle. de Chastenay made at that time, the most important to her was that of Réal. He had saved the life of her father. He was, she says, full of *esprit*, of vivacity, of kindness.

"His independent opinions, when merely shown in conversation, gave it a movement, a lightness, and, at the same time, an elevation which had for me the greatest possible charm. I went to see Mme. Réal and her family, in the midst of which she led a simple and quiet life. I had some conversations with M. Réal. His opinions were not all mine, but ideas marched so fast with a mind like his that it was not worth while to dispute over a few of them; we left them aside, and it was only after the too famous event of the 18th Fructidor that our relations became as intimate as indispensable."

A catastrophe was preparing; the royalist party was reviving and the Directory became alarmed:

"The press was absolutely free; the papers which were opposed to the Revolution, especially to the revolutionists and to the Directors even more than to the Directorial Government, were numberless. . . . This false compass deceived the émigrés, and they became, by fashion, even more ardent than they really were; it deceived the opinion which I will call national, and which wished only for quiet and for the return of the absent, but which feared a sort of reaction."

Two of the Directors, Carnot and Barthélemy, were favorable to the reaction. "Nobody at the time of the Restoration," says Mlle. de Chastenay, "remembered or wished to remember the proscription of Carnot after the 18th Fructidor. Still, there was, at that moment, a return towards royalty which was the secret thought of the unseen leaders." As for Barthélemy, he had been a clerk in the Foreign Office whom circumstances brought to the front. He signed the treaties of Bâle with Prussia, with Spain. The Swiss had erected triumphal arches on his passage; on his return through France he received the most flattering homage. In Paris and in the Directory, this prestige soon disappeared and was replaced by injustice. "Pale, tall, without dignity, little accustomed to speak and to give out his ideas, . . . the poor Barthélemy was quite stupefied by the hopes and the hatreds which his Presidency of the Directory seemed to excite. . . . . He did not know a single person. I have never seen anybody so null." On the 17th Fructidor, Mlle. de Chastenay went to a soirée with her mother and sister; she went home at two o'clock in the morning, having noticed nothing in the streets.

"At the dawn of day the streets were full of soldiers and bayonets; at nine o'clock in the morning Carnot had fled, Barthélemy was a prisoner, an immense number of Deputies, of journalists, and other people were in prison. . . . The day of the 18th Fructidor was disastrous; it destroyed all the prestige of the Constitution of the year iii. It showed that the laws were no protection, constitutions no safeguard. Journalists, Deputies, Directors, even, were transported to Sinnamari [in French Guiana]. . . . It traversed all the straight lines of opinion. The Republic, on its trial, was nothing but the victory of a party. Two new Directors were appointed. Everything assumed a character of violence and of conquest. The Treasury failed—that is to say, two-thirds of the public debt was repaid in paper money. This measure cost us 12,000 livres of revenue, by a stroke of the pen; our fortune, after the ruin of the assignats, never recovered from this terrible shock."

The laws against the émigrés were again put

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in force with renewed severity. Mlle. de Chastenay had to take great pains in order to obtain the definitive erasure of the father of her sister-in-law, M. de Laguiche, who was erroneously on the dreaded list of the émigrés. Réal served her again on this occasion. He had rooms at the Police Bureau, as he had been charged by the Government with the examination of the papers which proved the relations of Gen. Pichegru with the English Government and with the Prince of Condé. Réal was still at the bar, but he spent several hours every day at the Police Bureau, where Mlle. de Chastenay went to see him, took his instructions, and consulted him on her family affairs. Mlle. de Chastenay was twenty-six years old, Réal forty.

"We both had youth; I had real youth, he was young in character, though his hair was already almost white. His attachment for me increased every day; my gratitude, my confidence in him, became every day more imperious duties, and duties which I found it easier to fulfil. I expected everything of him, and, in order to imagine what I felt, you must understand our situation. It was a question of the *whole* of the fortune of my sister-in-law; if the name of M. de Laguiche was not struck off, it was total ruin for him and for his brother."

When Bonaparte came back from Italy, Mlle. de Chastenay hoped to find in him an ally.

"The conqueror of Italy was not of the common run of generals. Notwithstanding his addresses on the 18th Fructidor, all the malcontents placed their hope in him. He was coming back to make a *coup d'état*—such was the general opinion. The Directory received Bonaparte with misgivings; Bonaparte treated the Directory with an affectation of levity and contempt. He shut himself up, and, to gain time and to multiply his chances, he prepared the expedition to Egypt. I remember that he said to Réal: 'These people don't know how to govern; but the Government still goes on, and I don't want to be a rebel!'"

Réal finished his work at the Police Bureau; he entered into a company of army contractors, and Mlle. de Chastenay saw many of his partners, among whom was Fouché. "My first impression of him was perhaps painful," she says, but it did not hinder her from often seeing Fouché, "who gave me judicious advice about men and things. He manifested towards me the most obliging interest, and begged me to consider him in future as a counsellor whose experience might not be without use to me. I used this advantage, and had several times occasion to applaud myself for so doing."

Mlle. de Chastenay saw, it is clear, a very mixed company. The canoness was thrown among men who had been Terrorists; she frequented much the literary men of the time, and seems to have been altogether very sociable. "I went everywhere," she says very frankly. She became acquainted with Barras, with Larevellière. The first visits to the Terrorists were made in the interest of the Laguiche family. "It will never be known how much courage they required. I don't speak of the obligation always to make my visits on foot, of the simplicity of my dress, but of the profound isolation in which I was in this society, and which was very terrible at first to me." By degrees the ice was broken. This is her portrait of Barras:

"A noble, and at heart very glad to be one, he preserved in his manner the dignity, the politeness which prejudice attributes to us and imposes on us. . . . He was tall, brown; his countenance was haughty, his eye bright; his person was thoroughly distinguished and really imposing. He wore a long blue redingote and boots. He had taken the finest apartment in the Luxembourg; a fine gallery succeeded the drawing-room. I have seen it sometimes almost full of more or less remarkable men. He passed from group to group."

Mlle. de Chastenay describes the salon of Barras, and cites the men and women who were the chief guests of the Director, among others Madame Bonaparte, Madame Tallien, the greatest beauty of the time, Madame de Staël, Benjamin Constant, Talleyrand. "I was to Talleyrand," she says, "an object of surprise, and I don't think he ever quite understood me. I have never been at ease with men of his stamp, who employ any instrumentality, and who play at *profondeur*. . . . I don't know how this politician one day came to reveal to me the secret of his life: 'You must always,' said he, 'put yourself in a situation where you can choose between two resolutions.'" By her *esprit* Mlle. de Chastenay made herself rapidly important in the governmental sphere of the Directory; many people now began to ask for her aid, and she became a sort of connecting link between the remains of the old régime and the powers of the day. Her protection was understood to be the protection of Réal, who had made himself more and more influential.

But we must take leave of Mlle. de Chastenay, and wait patiently for the publication of the second volume of her Memoirs. We will, however, improve the occasion to complain of this new habit of publishing volumes of important memoirs separately and sometimes at long intervals.

Correspondence.

DENTISTS IN SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial in a recent number of the *Nation*, entitled "Political Gentlemen," these words appear: "We rarely meet . . . dentists in society." From this one is to suppose that there is something in dentistry which is antagonistic to refinement, education, and other things which go to make a gentleman. Is this true? As well say one rarely meets an oculist in society, or one rarely meets a rhinologist in society. Dentistry is nothing if not a part of the great medical profession, and is so acknowledged by the American Medical Society, as one section in that association is wholly devoted to dentistry. The term of pupilage of the dental school is the same as that in most of the medical schools. The fundamentals, viz., anatomy, chemistry, physiology, materia medica, are the same. The requirements for entrance to the schools are the same. A goodly number of those now entering the dental schools have degrees from the best scientific and literary colleges in the country. Many dentists are men of good breeding, have good manners, and have refined and educated tastes. There are about seven physicians to one dentist, and the proportion is even greater between the lawyer and the dentist, so it will be seen that one would naturally meet fewer dentists in society than either physicians or lawyers; besides, one may often meet a dentist in society and not be aware that he is a specialist, as the title Doctor is not discriminating.

There was a time when dentistry was on a low plane; so was surgery when practised only by barbers.—Yours truly,

Thomas L. Gilmer.

Chicago, June 19, 1896.

"AS YOU LIKE IT" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Three performances of Shakspere's "As You Like It" have been given by the class of 1896 as part of their graduation exercises. The first, a dress rehearsal, was necessarily somewhat crude; the third, on Saturday evening, June 13, was the most finished piece of dramatic study, the Greek play "Electra" excepted, yet undertaken by the students of Smith College. The task would perhaps not have been entered upon—it would certainly have been less confidently carried out—without the example of last year's class in "Midsummer Night's Dream." All the motives influencing the Seniors of 1895 to undertake a play of Shakspere were felt with equal force by the present Seniors. They, too, desired to entertain their guests and to get the intellectual and æsthetic discipline afforded by training for such a representation. To the former careful study of the text was added this year great attention to the stage business. Mr. Alfred Young, the trainer, made a careful study of all the presentations of the play, and collated the "business" of each part for the benefit of the respective performers. The result was highly interesting.

The play was cut to remove all passages unsuitable for modern presentation and to reduce its length. Very long speeches were avoided whenever practicable. *Sir Oliver Martext* and *Dennis* were entirely omitted, and also *Rosalind's* epilogue. The order of scenes was changed, in conformity with customary stage usage, to make the action more coherent and intelligible. These changes render the acting play markedly different from the play as read. The characters appear in different lights, and certain traits in changed proportion. *Rosalind*, for instance, becomes gentler and on the whole more romantic. The character of *Celia* grows in interest and attains more significance. On the other hand, certain passages in the play usually cut were left in, with the general effect of bringing out the serious and romantic side of the story and characters. The minor parts received careful attention throughout, the mobs, crowds, and attendants being made distinctly parts of the action as well as of the spectacle. Such changes as ensued from the circumstances under which the play was given, or from the cutting, may be considered incidental. One change was deliberately made, that of interpreting *Jaques* as the bitter cynic and libertine instead of the romantic philosopher.

Mr. Abbey's Shaksperian illustrations were used as guides in costuming. Great ingenuity was shown in adapting the pictures to stage effect, particularly as most of the costumes were made by a committee of the class. The scenery was arranged to make the woods-life as prominent as possible, and four different scenes gave glimpses of the Arden forest. The grouping of the exiled followers of the banished *Duke*, his earnest and dignified view of life, the occupations and recreations of the little community, were all very delicately and suggestively conveyed. The songs were given after old versions by Dr. Arne, Bishop, and Morley, transposed and arranged for four parts. Refrains from these songs appeared as dramatic *motifs* in the introduction of *Phœbe* and *Silvius*, of *Orlando* and *Adam*, in the exit of *Rosalind* and *Orlando* in Act. III., and in the dance with which the play was ended.

Of the acting, it must be said that it far exceeded the expectations of even those who had watched the progress of the study given to it.

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The voices of the girls were much more adequate to the demand than was to have been expected, and the rendering of some of the most difficult parts was most successful. The part of *Touchstone* was extraordinarily well given by Miss Dustin. A tinge of melancholy made the final suggestion in the personation of one of Shakspere's typical fools. The lines were nowhere better delivered than by Miss Hall in the character of *Adam*. The leading parts were so well taken that nobody missed the significance of *Celia's* intelligently sustained character, found the disguise of *Rosalind* absurd, or the sudden conversion of *Oliver* incredible. Perhaps the severest test endured by the acting was that of the love scenes, which were uniformly interesting and in several places really charming.

It should be said that no English play has ever been given by students of Smith College in which all the work was so directly the outcome of special study and preparation in the Department of Elocution. Miss Peck, the head of this department, feels that this performance does much to put such work in its proper relation to dramatic and literary study, both inside and outside the college. R. D.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 15, 1896.

Notes.

A. P. TVERSKOY'S 'Sketches from the United States of North America,' already heralded in these columns by a correspondent, Dr. Leo Wiener, is a translation announced by Macmillan Co.

The Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, will publish next month 'Nathaniel Massie, a Pioneer of Ohio,' by David Meade Massie, with portrait and map. The work will have a place beside the St. Clair Papers.

A chart, showing the "Descent of England's Sovereigns," that may be folded in any historical work, is to be published at once by D. C. Heath & Co.

In the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin we read that the long-expected catalogue of its bound newspaper files is still delayed by the difficulties incident to so novel and important an enterprise. It will be arranged geographically and chronologically by decades, will classify by special features, and will be enriched with historical notes. An alphabetical index to editors and publishers will conclude this most useful labor.

Harper & Bros. follow up Mark Twain's 'Huckleberry Finn' with 'A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court,' uniform in style and also illustrated. The series is prettily bound, and will find a welcome.

The Messrs. Putnam's "Mohawk Edition" of Cooper's works proceeds with 'The Sea Lions, or the Lost Sealers,' which completes the second section of six volumes. We have only to renew our praise of the openness of the typography and the general comeliness of this issue.

Another handful of volumes in the little wine-colored series of "Stories by English Authors" comes from Charles Scribner's Sons. The tales relate respectively to London, France, Italy, and Africa—an itinerary quite conformable to that of present-day tourists. Good portraits of Barrie, Weyman, Payn, and Doyle furnish frontispieces to the two hundred pages of brief fiction by twenty-two writers in all.

The Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, Mr. George W. Ross, has contributed to the International Education Series an extremely lucid and satisfactory account of the school system over which he presides (D. Appleton & Co.). Dr. Harris, in his editorial preface, truly remarks that "it may be doubted whether there is another instance in America of so wise a use of money and supervising power as is shown in this Province of Ontario, excepting the administration of the Peabody and Slater funds for the stimulation and nurture of education in our Southern States." The striking features of the Ontario school system are the close organization and correlation of its several parts, higher and lower; the insistence upon the employment of trained teachers only; and the provision for denominational schools, subject to the same standards of efficiency as the public schools. Centralized supervision and apportionment of school moneys assure the maintenance of the legally prescribed standards in all these respects. Many of the strongest points of the Ontario system are being consciously or unconsciously imitated in several of the more progressive States, notably in New York and New Jersey.

Prof. Hinsdale of the University of Michigan is a cautious and painstaking student of education, and these qualities are reflected in his two latest books. The one, 'Studies in Education' (Chicago: Werner School Book Company), is largely made up of the author's recent contributions to the *Educational Review*, the *Forum*, and other periodicals. Of these papers two are specially noteworthy. They deal respectively with the Dogma of Formal Discipline and the American School Superintendent. His other work, 'Teaching the Language-Arts' (D. Appleton & Co.), is more ambitious, and attempts to construct a consistent theory of grammatical, linguistic, and literary training.

'Education,' by H. Holman, M.A. (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is largely devoted to psychology, and is written in apparent ignorance of the current literature of education in Germany, France, Italy, and the United States. The author is grievously mistaken in his supposition that the conception of the book is "entirely original." The conception not only is not original, but is commonplace and imperfect.

The considerable interest in the Moravian reformer, Comenius, that was aroused by the celebration, in 1892, of the three-hundredth anniversary of his birth, and the intrinsic merit of the book itself, justify the publication of an English version of his 'Didactica Magna' (Macmillan Co.). The editor, Mr. M. W. Keatinge, has supplied a useful and voluminous introduction. It is to be noted that the book is not "translated," as is usual, but "Englished."

'Sketches of English Glee Composers,' by David Baptie (Scribners), is a little volume of 235 pages which will doubtless be warmly welcomed by the numerous glee clubs in our colleges and elsewhere. Brief sketches are given of the lives of about two hundred composers of glees between the years 1735 and 1866, with lists of their best pieces, and indications of the voices for which each piece is written, to enable caterers for glee clubs or choral societies to choose what they desire. The author, being an Englishman, is patriotically proud of the glee, which is England's principal contribution to the world's treasures of music. He justly holds that, in this field, England is unrivalled. Gounod, Ambroise Thomas, Abt, Kücken, Kreutzer, Mendelssohn, and others have written beautiful part songs, but "it is in a different style from the English glee, and *that* is still the best." On the second page the author gives his reasons for this statement, which are interesting if not convincing.

A professional reviewer is apt to shudder when a "new method" of singing is placed on his desk. It is therefore a pleasure to meet with a book like 'Voice-Building and Tone-Placing,' by Dr. H. Holbrook Curtis (Appletons). This treatise is intended to be of use to physicians as well as to students of the voice; it exposes fallacious theories regarding the so-called registers, and includes exercises for the restoration of cords injured by improper vocal methods so much in vogue. The author, besides being familiar with the latest work of scientific specialists, has had much practical experience with eminent singers, the results of which are incorporated in the text, and there are valuable suggestions regarding breathing, hygiene, tone-placing, voice-building, etc., with abundant illustrations. Even the general reader will find something to entertain him in the last chapter, which has a number of pictures showing the lovely figures of seaweed, flowers, ferns, and shells that can be produced by tone vibrations after the method of Mrs. Watts-Hughes, as first described in the *Century Magazine* for May, 1891. Altogether, this is an exceptionally valuable book of its kind, though the introductory sketch of the "Origin of Music" might well have been omitted. The volume is dedicated to Jean de Reszké.

The first volume of the "Library of Early English Writers" begins with Yorkshire writers, singling out "Richard Rolle of Hampole, an English Father of the Church, and his Followers" (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan). It is edited by Prof. C. Horstmann, well known from his editions of 'Altenglische Legenden' and other works. Our acquaintance with Hampole has been hitherto through his 'Prick of Conscience,' but now we have for the first time an edition of his various minor treatises. The "Introduction" discusses scholasticism and mysticism, and is incomplete, preparing the way for a consideration of Hampole himself, who is regarded as the typical English mystic. He entered upon the hermit life in his nineteenth year, and forms a direct contrast to Duns Scotus, the opposition of feeling to intellect. While writing much in Latin, "he was the first who to any great extent employed his mother-tongue." Many short treatises in both prose and poetry are included in this volume, among the latter being the poem beginning—

> "When Adam delf and Eve span, spir, if thou wil spede,
> Whare was than the pride of man, that now merres his mede?"

It is hoped that the next volume will be provided with an index, or with a table of contents at least, and will tell us something more about Hampole himself.

It was a happy thought that led Mrs. Martha Foote Crowe to edit the later 'Elizabethan Sonnet-Cycles,' which have hitherto been inaccessible to the general. There is a natural unity running through these sequences of poems which makes it highly desirable to have them together at hand for comparison. The attractive little volume before us promises a series which will make this possible. In her first volume Mrs. Crowe gives the full text, spelling modernized, of Lodge's "Phillis" and Giles Fletcher's "Licia." Her several introductions offer essential biographical facts and some popular criticism, but make no pretence of original research. The publishers are Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

It would hardly be expected that the His-

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tory of the Twenty-second Regiment of the New York National Guard would make an interesting chapter in our war history, yet such is the fact. It was organized early in 1861, from business men, to supply a local protection in New York city which was felt to be indispensable when the older militia regiments had mostly gone to the field. Although its members were men whom strong duty required to be at home, the regiment volunteered for brief field-service at Harper's Ferry in 1862, and again in the Gettysburg campaign of 1863, and, though it saw no severe fighting, its story is among the most interesting as to marching, bivouac, and rough camp-life. It did good service, also, in the draft riots and in other local disturbances. Its history is among the best illustrations of the close relations of State troops to the national army. Gen. George W. Wingate has made a sumptuous volume of the regimental annals, and E. W. Dayton has published it in excellent form with maps and photographic illustrations.

'The Confederate Soldier in the Civil War,' edited by Ben LaBree (printed by the *Courier-Journal* Co., Louisville) is a ponderous folio, compiled from various sources, profusely illustrated with process reproductions of portraits, maps, and scenes. It cannot claim to be a history, but is one of those encyclopædic collections of documents, narratives, battle-reports, biographies, and anecdotes which contain much of the crude material of history, and make amusing reading for such as love to pick and choose among a diversified mass of material more or less authentic. Its collection of portraits is very large, and, as photography has been mostly relied upon, the gallery of soldiers and statesmen is well worthy of study for the types of character to be seen in the noteworthy group of men who planned secession and led its soldiers in the field.

Every student, on taking up a new subject of investigation, has found his greatest difficulty lie in the effort to acquire a knowledge of its bibliography; and even in the conduct of old studies it is not easy to keep abreast with the constantly multiplying mass of publications in books and periodicals. With the view of lightening this labor for historians, M. Ch.-V. Langlois has undertaken a 'Manuel de Bibliographie Historique' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), of which the first part has just appeared, comprising a condensed critical review of the innumerable bibliographies devoted to history and its *Hülfswissenschaften*. To workers in history it will prove a handy and efficient guide in showing them what has been done and is now doing towards furnishing them with the aids necessary to the prosecution of their labors. The wide and exact erudition of M. Langlois is well known, and he is, furthermore, fitted for his present task by the fact that, unlike most French scholars, his horizon is not limited by national boundaries. What has been accomplished in this country in the matter of bibliography receives ample attention at his hands, but perhaps the most striking feature of his little volume is the enormous preponderance which has been secured by German laborers in this field. The second part of the book promises to contain an account of the original sources of history, and, if executed with thoroughness, will prove of even greater utility than the present one.

Tourists in France, whether afoot or on the wheel, should equip themselves with J. Bertot's 'Guides du Cycliste en France' (Paris: G. Boudet), embracing nine 12mo volumes. All the routes radiate from Paris, with runs to Geneva, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Brest, Havre, etc. Colored route-maps and plans of cities are abundantly supplied, with other needful information. The editor is a devotee of Alpine climbing as well as of the bicycle. The phrase "chemins non véloçables" introduces us to a neologism which one will seek in vain in Littré.

The Rev. C. C. Carpenter, Secretary of the Alumni Association of Andover Theological Seminary, continues the necrology of the institution in his usual admirable manner. Although the number deceased in 1895–6 largely exceeds that of previous years, reaching 56, it need not be supposed that this indicates a decline in the longevity of Andover graduates. The average age of the 56 decedents was 74 years and four days. Three of the number were over 90, twenty were between 80 and 90, fourteen between 70 and 80, twelve between 60 and 70, and only two below 50, one of whom was nearly 49. All were college graduates, and four had been college presidents. Among the notable names are those of Edward Beecher, Harvey D. Kitchel, Prof. Daniel S. Talcott of Bangor, Dr. Samuel F. Smith, and Drs. Clark and Alden of the American Board. Prof. Park, at the age of 87, now heads the roll of living alumni.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has surpassed his "imperial panel" photograph of the late Dr. W. H. Furness in a photogravure from the same negative, we believe. This permanent print preserves to a remarkable degree the delicate detail of a face "each several point" of whose benevolent expression was

"Tremblingly bright with the inward grace,"

as Lowell said of Mrs. Follen's countenance. Dr. Furness's autograph in facsimile is affixed to the plate.

The Sierra Club has just issued a new edition of its "Map of the Central Portion of the Sierra Nevada," first issued in 1893, and now extensively revised in accordance with the latest authorities and explorations. The map is on a scale of four miles to the inch, and has side-maps on a larger scale of the Yosemite Valley and the Hetch-Hetchy Valley. It is conveniently folded for the pocket in covers or dissected and mounted on cloth (San Francisco: T. S. Solomons, 508 California Street, R. 12).

—*Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) is notably successful in maintaining the interest and value of its papers. Part ix. opens with a survey of Japanese illustrated books, by Robert K. Douglas, whose concern is purely historical, and who has no technical information to impart. The sample illustrations, of which several are colored, are numerous and striking. Mr. Douglas misses the direction of the flight of wild duck in describing Plate ii.; they are departing, not approaching the musician. Natalie Rondot writes in French on wood-engraving at Lyons in the fifteenth century, and, amid much crude work, exhibits specimens of a high degree of attainment. A kindred theme enlists Mr. Alfred W. Pollard in "The Woodcut Designs for Illumination in Venetian Books, 1469–'73." Mr. Pollard has made the not insignificant discovery that borders were stamped on pages as a guide to the illuminator—the same work being found with and without such impressions. He infers that this was done outside of the printing-office. "It is possible that each printer had business relations with a distinct firm of illuminators, to whom he sent a few copies of his books for decoration," and that the private buyer resorted, on his part, to one or another such firm as suited his taste, as "where we find a Jenson book with a Vindelinus border, or *vice versa*"—*i. e.*, where the printer's taste and customary dealing have been ignored. Still more important is Dr. Garnett's essay towards mapping the intellectual currents of the fifteenth century as manifested in the *incunabula*, in the case of the Italian book-trade. The peculiar characteristics of the publications of Rome, Venice, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Milan, and Naples from 1467 to 1500 are set forth in more or less detail, with the conclusion that Italian Renaissance literature was "far more utilitarian than that of ages often stigmatized as matter-of-fact and prosaic." Classical authors were reproduced "either for the information they contained, or as books for school or college." Outside of these, beyond impressions of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, "very little of a fanciful or imaginative character appeared." It was in Venice that the public proved a better patron than those in authority, though "Florence understood the duty of encouraging contemporary talent better than any other city." We have room only to mention Mr. W. Barclay Squire's "Notes on Early Music-Printing," Mr. H. B. Wheatley's "The Strawberry-Hill Press," and Mr. Joseph Pennell's laudatory account of *Once a Week* as "a great art magazine." Like the foregoing, these articles are amply illustrated.

—The third volume of "Harvard Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature" (Boston: Ginn & Co.) contains Prof. Kittredge's 'Observations on the Language of Chaucer's Troilus,' issued in 1894 as one of the publications of the Chaucer Society for 1891, and republished in this volume. It is a thorough and searching grammatical and metrical investigation of Chaucer's "Troilus," which extended over many years, and is "intended to furnish some materials for the large induction necessary to reasonable certainty in the matter of Chaucer's language, particularly his use of final *e*." The study is based on the MSS. as edited by Dr. Furnivall for the Chaucer Society, and is arranged by parts of speech, all forms being noted that are necessary for a complete grammatical view of the language. The numbering of the lines is continuous, and a comparative table prefixed gives the correspondences in Furnivall and Morris. Prof. Skeat's edition did not appear until the table had been sent to the printers, but the statement is made that his numbering corresponds with Dr. Morris's for Book I., and with Dr. Furnivall's for the other books. Skeat's edition, however, contains 8,239 lines, not 8,232, as in Prof. Kittredge's MS. A, on which the study is chiefly based; hence one stanza, inserted as in Morris after st. 127, must be added. A comparison for the unusual form *arn* in Chaucer shows that the three cases occurring in "Troilus" are all recorded. The form *beth*, third person plural, cannot be found in Skeat at the reference given (6020). Interjections are omitted in Prof. Kittredge's chapter on "Adverbs and Other Particles." A search for the rare *adieu* failed to find it; there is but one instance in "Troilus" (i, 1041). This, perhaps the earliest instance on record of the use of the interjection, is not given in the Oxford English Dictionary, although another is there recorded as a noun, "and his *adew* made" (ii., 1085), but this is an incorrect reading, doubtless from the text of Bell, who gives it. Prof. Skeat has here "And radde it over," without variant. Prof. Manly has made a similar study, after Prof. Kittredge, of "The Legend of Good Women," in "Harvard Studies," vol. ii. (1893), and

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other poems of Chaucer are now under investigation in the same way. Prof. Kittredge's work has already produced good fruit.

—At the May meeting of the English Goethe Society, Prof. Dowden delivered the Presidential address. He assumed the rôle of the Devil's Advocate with a thoroughness that caused a stir in the court of devotees. His address has now appeared in the June number of *Cosmopolis*. The chief defects in Goethe's character and works are therein set forth with brevity and clearness and without modifying phrases. The paper will be read with interest by the admirers of Goethe as an example of the ease with which a trained scholar may speciously wrest his facts to false conclusions. The late Prof. Carriere of Munich once published an essay in which, by the use of the "philological method," he proved that Lessing wrote Goethe's "Faust." The work was skilfully executed, and some dull men imagined that a "Baconian" theory had actually invaded the field of Goethe literature. Prof. Dowden has accomplished a similar *tour de force*, but has missed the fine strain of irony. Any reader familiar with Goethe's life and works can frame his own reply as he reads. Indeed, in the replies which it elicits will be found the only real value of this article. A statement so frankly one-sided can exert scarcely more influence in England than was produced in Germany by Grabbe's ill-natured arraignment of Shakspere. It is, however, a pity that the zeal of the Advocatus Diaboli should have led him into misstatements, as, for instance, when he says that in the treatment of "Faust" "the results of a century's criticism tend more and more towards disintegration." But, after all, the chief harm which this kind of intellectual athletics can do is to supply with plausible catchwords the vocabulary of those who, in their insular ignorance, are fond of depreciating the German poet; and this class of persons will be very ready to doubt the sincerity of Prof. Dowden's intentions as a friend of Goethe in disguise. This "Case against Goethe," however, is, as Edmond Schérer said of "Hermann und Dorothea," "a factitious work."

—Mr. W. A. Shaw, whose 'History of Currency' at once made him an authority on monetary science, has collected a number of papers bearing on the subject, which are published under the title 'Select Tracts and Documents Illustrative of English Monetary History, 1626–1730' (London: Clement Wilson). The authors from whose writings the collection is made are Sir Robert Cotton, Henry Robinson, Sir Richard Temple, "J. S.," Sir Isaac Newton, John Conduitt; and extracts are added from the Domestic State Papers at the Record Office. The compilation, Mr. Shaw tells us, is meant as an object-lesson in currency history, and is intentionally restricted to a century which cannot be called controversial. It illustrates, at five different periods, "the one main difficulty which the monetary systems of every state of Europe experienced, as the result of a mechanism inherited from the Middle Ages, and which they continued to experience until the reforms of quite modern times." This difficulty was substantially that recognized and stated by Sir Thomas Gresham, or, as Mr. Shaw expresses it, the buying up of better money by means of inferior kinds. It is not true, he says, that bad money drives out good; but, under favorable conditions, the merchant exchanger can buy up the good money by means of the bad, the unworn by means of the worn, the more valuable by means of the less valuable. In such operations the provisions for free coinage, as the mints of no two countries put the same values on the metals, were of great assistance; and the great reform of this century has consisted in the abolition of this privilege. Mr. Shaw's selections graphically illustrate the incessant perplexities and dangers encountered by the mint directors of the period, and are extremely interesting as showing the practical working of bimetallism with free coinage.

—Senator Luigi Chiala has done more than any other living Italian to collect and preserve the most valuable private documents of the men who made Italy a generation ago. His edition of Cavour's letters, enriched by ample notes, must always remain an original source for every student of European history between 1847 and 1861. Senator Chiala has now edited the papers of Giacomo Dina (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), a man interesting for his own character and attainments, and important as being the chief journalistic supporter of Cavour's nine years' ministry. Dina was a Jew, born at a time when his race had neither civil, political, nor social rights in Piedmont. Before he was twenty he had acquired an extraordinary amount of learning, for which he had no outlet, the only employment open to him being that of primary-school teacher at sixty dollars a year. The reforms of 1847, however, allowed the establishment of newspapers, and to one of these, the *Opinione* of Turin, Dina was called as an assistant. Subsequently he rose to be the managing editor, in the days when that paper was the recognized mouthpiece of the Cavourian party. Senator Chiala reprints many of Dina's leaders on important events—the expedition to the Crimea, the conference at Plombières, the war of 1859, Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition, etc.—together with private letters to and from Dina, and an unfailing stream of explanation. Dina's articles have for the historian the added value of representing the point of view which Cavour wished the public to take; but they also deserve attention on Dina's own account. He was a man who held the highest ideal of a journalist's mission—a man, therefore, who belongs to a type which seems to-day, except for a few rare exceptions, as obsolete as is that of paladin or knight errant. Dina believed that the journalist should educate, should form and lead public opinion, should speak the truth, and trust without doubt or wavering to the final verdict of reason.

JAMES WILSON.

The Works of James Wilson, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and Professor of Law in the College of Philadelphia; being his Public Discourses upon Jurisprudence and the Political Science, including Lectures as Professor of Law, 1790-'92. Edited by James de Witt Andrews. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1896.

NOTWITHSTANDING the important part played and the high position held by him in public affairs, the name of Wilson has almost lapsed into oblivion. His present editor feels it necessary to insist with emphasis upon his undoubted claims to remembrance. Not only was he a member of the convention which framed the Constitution, but it was in a great measure due to his eloquent good sense that the ratification of it by Pennsylvania was secured. He was one of the first judges of the Supreme Court, appointed by Washington, and may be said to share with Marshall and Jay the honor of having formulated and made effective some of the cardinal legal principles of our government. His remains make it seem very probable that, had he lived (he died in 1798 at the age of fifty-six), he would have been known as a great federalist judge; as it was, he had an opportunity, in the case of Chisholm vs. the State of Georgia, to render a judgment which made it for the first time plain that the Constitution had called into existence a new sovereign state.

This case, reported in the second volume of Dallas's Reports, came before the Supreme Court in 1793, four years after the new government had gone into operation. It came up in a matter-of-fact way, upon a motion by Mr. Randolph, Attorney-General, that unless the State of Georgia should enter an appearance in defence of the action, judgment should be entered against the State by default; nevertheless, it was what would now be called a very sensational suit. It involved a question so important that the decision in it resulted in one of the few amendments of the Constitution adopted between 1787 and our own time. The question was whether a State could be sued in the federal courts on a money demand by the citizen of another State. The Chief Justice was Jay; his associates were Iredell, an excellent lawyer, Blair, Wilson, and Cushing. All delivered opinions *seriatim*, and all felt that in a measure the future complexion and even fate of the new government hinged upon their decision. The Constitution provided that the judicial power should extend to controversies between a State and a citizen; did this mean that any one to whom a State owed money could obtain federal process to compel payment by the State? Four years before, such a suit would have been inconceivable. That a sovereign was exempt from suit was a legal commonplace familiar to every student of Blackstone and Coke. If Georgia, a sovereign State in 1789, was now subject to an action of *assumpsit* at the suit of any one to whom she owed money, it could only be because her sovereignty *pro tanto* was gone. This was the fundamental question which the judges were to decide.

Their opinions were characteristic of the men who delivered them. Iredell's was that of a lawyer and strict constructionist, Jay's that of a lawyer who was also a statesman, determined to give the most liberal construction to the charter he was called upon to interpret, but determined at the same time to put his judgment upon grounds impregnable to attack; Wilson's that of an orator, a publicist, a scholar, and a metaphysician, dissatisfied with himself unless he could show that the decision he had reached was called for, not merely by the Constitution, but by all history, all law, and finally by all philosophy. Iredell's argument was in substance that, even if a State could be sued under the new Constitution, still the power to entertain such a suit had not been conferred on the courts by Congress, and a new statute was necessary for the purpose. He strongly intimated the opinion, however, that no such power existed. The meaning of the clause in the Constitution was merely that the courts were to take cognizance of such controversies between a State and a citizen as had been cognizable before the adoption of the Constitution—*i. e.*, suits in which the State was plaintiff, or in which it consented to be sued. The Chief Justice's opinion was purely practical. He did not cite a single case, but relied first upon the fact that Georgia was not

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sovereign in the *sense* or to the extent in which the King of England was sovereign; that her limited sovereignty was compatible with suability, and that, finally, the Constitution (to which Georgia was a consenting party) expressly authorized such a suit.

Wilson's opinion, on the other hand, while quite as logical as Jay's, is an ornate rhetorical essay. Not satisfied with what he justly calls the "uncommon magnitude" of the question involved, he magnifies it still further at the outset by declaring it to involve one more important still—"Do the people of the United States form a nation?" Having determined that this is the question before him, he opens the discussion with a quotation from Reid, explains that he intends to use the words state and sovereign in new senses; that the state is merely a useful and valuable contrivance brought into existence by the real sovereign, the people; that consequently the State of Georgia is not, as to the purposes of the Union, a sovereign at all; that the notion of sovereignty on which the State had relied for exemption was purely feudal in origin, the sovereign being a king—we have no feudal system and no king here—while, on principles of general jurisprudence, laws are founded not on the command of a superior, but on the *consent* of those who obey them. There is in these principles nothing to exempt the State of Georgia from suit. In the second place, many precedents warrant such a suit. The cases cited are from Isocrates, the history of Spain, Sparta, France, and the Saxons. In the third place, the exemption of a state from suit being thus shown to be unwarranted by history and general jurisprudence, the only remaining questions are: Could the Constitution vest a jurisdiction over the State of Georgia? Has it done so? Both of which are answered in the affirmative, and the conclusion reached that judgment must be rendered for the plaintiff, by default.

But execution never issued. So astonished was the public at the novelty of the idea that States were subject to the jurisdiction of the federal courts, that an amendment to the Constitution exempting them from it was shortly afterwards proposed and adopted, and, in 1798, all suits of the kind were swept from the records of the court. Curiously enough, and as if to wipe out any vestige of the decision, the successors of Jay and Wilson have in our day gone out of their way to declare that the decision of the court in Chisholm vs. Georgia was wrong. In 1889, in the case of Hans vs. Louisiana, we find a new attempt made to sue a State, under another clause of the Constitution. The court, after an interval of a hundred years, reëxamines the subject, and announces that it was Iredell, and not Wilson and Jay, who was right, chiefly on the ground that the interpretation of the Constitution antecedent to its adoption, by Hamilton in the *Federalist*, and by Madison and Marshall in the Virginia convention, had established that States were not suable. This criticism of the earlier decision is entirely extra-judicial, for it was not at all necessary to the decision of the Louisiana case, and we shall therefore take the liberty of expressing the opinion that, were the main question still open to argument, the decision of the Supreme Court itself, rendered after the adoption of the Constitution, by Wilson, Jay, and their associates, ought to be more weighty than *ex parte* arguments of advocates of the adoption of the Constitution whose main object was to minimize whatever objections were urged against it.

But whatever view may be taken of the technical correctness of the decision, who can but deplore the results of the failure of these judges in their bold attempt to settle for ever the supremacy of the new Government? What has exemption from suit brought in its train but millions of debt repudiated and thousands of innocent people plundered? How much better would it be if the tribunal which has always enjoyed unquestioned obedience where two States are parties, or where the most powerful corporation or the most populous city or subdivision of a State is concerned, had not been shorn of the power to enforce justice between a State and a citizen! Indeed, when one reads these early opinions and reflects on the subsequent history of the country, one is tempted to go much further, and to echo the wish expressed by Jay, that "the state of society were so far improved, and the science of Government advanced to such a degree of perfection, as that the whole nation could in the peaceable course of law be compelled to do justice." Repudiated by the States and swept from the records of the court the decision might be, but the principles underlying such judicial opinions could no more be effaced than the Constitution itself. The sovereignty of the Union had been recognized, the idea of the State as a subordinated political agency had been formulated—views to be wholly lost sight of, and to be vindicated two generations later by force of arms in a conflict which ended in their complete triumph. One of the earliest heralds of the true constitutional meaning and scope of that great conflict seems to have been Wilson. The opinion in Chisholm vs. the State of Georgia is really his best monument.

An edition of his works, published under the direction of Bird Wilson, in three volumes, appeared in 1804. The greater part of the contents of both the earlier and later edition consist of the lectures on Law delivered in the College of Philadelphia in 1790-'91. The present editor has added a good many notes of his own, which are mainly valuable in so far as they refer the reader to cases and other writers. The speculative opinions advanced in them do not seem to add anything to the text, and are calculated to produce the erroneous impression that Wilson's views of jurisprudence are those of modern scholars. How the editor has succeeded in persuading himself of this we do not know. Wilson was essentially a man of his time, though in advance of it also. Born and educated in Scotland, and coming here while still very young, he had a greater knowledge of the principles of the Roman law than most of his English or American contemporaries. His reading was wide, and he entertained on all public subjects advanced and humane views. Like the authors of the *Federalist*, his reasoning as to human institutions is always founded upon a perception of the great truth that they are carried on by men acting from observed tendencies and impulses, and that the first question is whether, with human nature as it is, a projected institution will or will not accomplish a given result. Thus, he clearly foresees (vol. i., p. 359) exactly how division of responsibility as to appointments must produce bad appointments. It could not be made clearer, even by a study of bi-partisan commissions in New York. His whole chapter on government is a most enlightened essay. In his eleventh chapter he points out that, under our system, an unconstitutional law cannot but be held void by the courts—in this anticipating and explaining what was to be the course of decision. In his remarks on the philosophy of evidence he points out, far in advance of his time, that a competition between opposite analogies is the principle into which legal controversies may often be resolved. In his "Considerations on the power to incorporate the Bank of North America," the principle of the decision in the Dartmouth College case is anticipated in a very remarkable way (vol. i., p. 566). He favored the fusion of Law and Equity (vol. ii., p. 136), and protested against the failure of the common law to provide compensation for the death of a human being (p. 360). On the other hand, he knew no more than his contemporaries of the historical method of studying law—although his inquiry into the probable derivation of the word *felony* shows a philological sense which would have greatly helped to equip him for it—and the basis of his philosophy of jurisprudence was metaphysical and theological. Consequently, the greater part of his speculative writing, while deserving of preservation owing to the light which it throws upon the development of law, is no longer of any other value. The reason why Mr. Andrews does not perceive this is that he himself, as his note on "Who are the People?" shows, is a metaphysician too, while his evident leaning toward socialism does not help to render his metaphysics any clearer.

It cannot be honestly said that Wilson's abstract speculations about law are of much more value than those of Puffendorf, though they are one degree more modern. He traces law and custom to consent. It has been proved over and over again since his time that this is a mere assumption, and opposed to the facts of history. Law had its origin partly in brute force, partly in custom, and partly in regulations enforced by a sovereign. As to the latter, no consent was asked, and as to custom it is impossible, with regard to many primitive social rules, that there can have been any antecedent consent. To say nothing of such customs as suttee, circumcision, human sacrifices, cannibalism, or marriage accomplished by violence, we have no proof that a rule of property such as primogeniture or dower was introduced by any such means. The argument as to consent is, first, that law cannot be imposed by superior right, for one human being has by nature no superior right over any other. I have no more right to make rules for you than you for me. But since law rightfully exists, and we are under a necessity to assign some origin to it, there is none discoverable but an act of consent on the part of the governed that he shall be subject to certain rules. The vice of the argument is that it confounds the right to govern with the fact of government. We know nothing about the right to govern unless, ascending from the plane of metaphysics to that of theology, we assume (as almost every one did down to the present century) that the right is derived from God. If we say that the right to govern *ought* to be derived from the people, that is the expression of an opinion that a government so derived better answers the ends of government. No existing government is based on the consent of the whole people: women, children, and generally large numbers of adult males have no voice in it.

Of the man Wilson little has come down to us. Yet, with the aid of the old-fashioned portrait prefixed to the earlier edition of his works, we cannot be far out of the way in ascribing to his character qualities corresponding to those of his mind. A kindly and humane wisdom marks every line that he wrote, and looks out at us through his spectacles. His face alone explains why Washington should have preferred him to the distinguished lawyers of his own State as an instructor

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for his nephew. He was an accomplished publicist and skilful debater, with a Scotch persistency which sometimes makes us smile, though rather with than at him. Who but the man himself would ever have thought it worth while to suggest, in the course of a judicial opinion on jurisdiction, that constitutional accuracy is incumbent upon us, not only in our common but "even in our convivial language"?

"Is a toast asked? 'The United States' instead of the 'People of the United States' is the toast given. This is not politically correct. The toast is meant to present to view the first great object in the Union; it presents only the second. It presents only the artificial person instead of the natural persons who spoke it into existence. A State, I cheerfully admit, is the noblest work of Man, but Man himself, free and honest, is (I speak as to this world) the noblest work of God."

TURKS AND MONGOLS.

Introduction à l'Histoire de l'Asie: Turcs et Mongols des Origines à 1405. Par Léon Cahun. Paris: Colin & Cie.

With a part of this work students are already familiar in the chapters which M. Cahun has lately contributed to the general work of Lavisse and Rambaud; but so much is there condensed into so little space that an amplification is very welcome. Well as he writes, with all the ease and mastery of a good French style, his book can never be popular, for the mass of Eastern names is alone enough to frighten away many readers. Although he uses a most varied set of authorities, from Chinese chronicles to the latest European travellers in Central Asia, he seems to rely chiefly on Turkish sources, writing from an Eastern point of view, interested in and admiring his characters, and not mainly concerned with any possible relations between their actions and the destinies of western Europe. The clearness and decision of his opinions, if distinctly impressive as being based on much learning, in the end provoke criticism. M. Cahun knows too exactly the motives of everybody. We very much doubt whether his native authorities are sufficiently explicit or trustworthy to be a sure foundation for many of his theories, which only too often appear to be the result of mere *a-priori* reasoning, expressed as if there could be no question as to its accuracy.

"The Turks and the Mongols were the intermediaries between the civilization of the Chinese and that of the Persians." We find them first under the name of Hiung-Nu, a general term applied to the barbarian tribes against whom the Great Wall was built, and who, as mercenaries and invaders, played much the same rôle in Chinese history as the Germans at one time in that of the Roman Empire. Gradually they were pushed back until, in the beginning of the Christian era, they were separated into two parts, some driven northwards, while great masses were forced to the west by the Chinese general Panchao, who even reached the Caspian, and was preparing to attack the Parthians when recalled by his Emperor. Under the name of Huns, the mere vanguard of these hordes of wandering Mongolians nearly destroyed western Christendom. In 569 the powerful central Asiatic King of the Tu-kiu, as the Chinese called them, or the Τοῦρκοι, according to the Greeks, sent ambassadors to Justin II. and to the "Son of Heaven" in order "to form an alliance between the two great civilized States, between China of the East and the Ta-Tsin, the great China of the West, the Roman Empire; he and his Turks serving as the intermediary, the man at arms in the pay of the allies." Nothing came of this alliance. For centuries the Sassanid sovereigns of Persia kept back the Turanians to the north of them until they themselves were crushed by the Arab invasion of the followers of the Prophet. This was the chance of the Turks; in large bands or small, as enemies, or more often as mercenaries, they flowed southward; they adopted Mohammedanism; they were the best warriors of the Caliphs, who became puppets in their hands, and finally they founded mighty empires of their own, such as that of Ghuzna, which conquered much of northern India, that of the Seljuks, who overran Asia Minor and Palestine and brought on the crusades.

Meanwhile their distant kin, north of the Great Wall, remained as before, preying on China when she was weak, her vassals when she was strong, until their scattered bands were united by Genghis Khan. This extraordinary man, who was born in 1162, was gifted with a clear cold mind; his ambition was boundless, but he was moderate and cautious in action, while never varying from his purposes, a statesman and an organizer, the first slave to the Yassak or Rule he had created, and which embodied the punctilious bureaucratic spirit that the Mongols probably caught from the Chinese, and that was so unbearable to subject people. Though one of the greatest conquerors the world has ever seen, he made no pretence of being a military genius, but picked out his generals with wonderful discernment. The early career of the future Emperor was arduous enough, for, having lost his father while still a youth, he and his mother had great difficulty in keeping together the warriors attached to the family. Gradually, however, tribe after tribe was overcome by a mixture of force and diplomacy. The Christian Sultan of the Kerait Turks, the Prester John of European legend, was defeated and killed, and in 1206 Genghis Khan, fixing his capital at Karakorum in Mongolia, south of Lake Baikal, proclaimed himself the "Inflexible Emperor." China was at that time divided into two empires, Mantchu in the north, and a purely native in the south. The northern state was attacked in 1210, but did not finally succumb until after a struggle of twenty-four years, at the cost of torrents of bloodshed. While this war was still going on, in 1219, the Mongols assailed, not without provocation, the Turkish empire of Kharesm in Central Asia, and did not rest until they had subdued it. In spite of difficulties and rivalries as to the succession, the death of Ghengis, in 1227, seemed only to increase the momentum of his followers, whose ranks were now swelled by great numbers of their conquered kin. Batu, one grandson of the Inflexible, subjugated Russia and laid waste lands in Central Europe. Kublai, another, as the Great Khan, subdued southern China, while his younger brother, Hulagu, overthrew the Persians and pressed on almost to the Mediterranean, till his progress was checked by the Mamelukes.

In all these conquests M. Cahun insists again and again that the success of the Mongols was owing to their superior generalship and organization, not to the immense numbers credited to them by the frightened chroniclers of the time and accepted even to-day by many historians. "In the thirteenth century in military art it was the Mongols who were civilized, while the barbarians were the people whom they defeated in all due form, thanks to the genius of their generals, the experience of their captains, the discipline of their troops, and not at all to their numbers. Their campaign of 1214 (against Kharesm) was as regular and as well ordered as our classic one of 1805." Certainly the two years' raid of Jebe and Subutai, a generation later, was marvellous enough. Starting with 25,000 cavalry from Samarkand, they tracked the Sultan of Kharesm to his death, passed along south of the Caspian, overthrowing Turks, Persians, Georgians, all who opposed them, crossed the impenetrable Caucasus, crushed or swept before them the nations of the steppe, defeated at the River Kalka a Russian army, whose numbers are given by Karamzin as 82,000 men, pushed on to the Dnieper, then returned tranquilly to the heart of Asia. In the great invasion of Russia nominally commanded by Batu—an easy-going prince very different from what the terrified imagination of the West painted him—but really led by Subutai, according to trustworthy Turkish and Chinese accounts, the Mongols mustered some 150,000 men, most of whom had come from immense distances, and when, later, they divided, they can have had in Poland but about 40,000; in Hungary 60,000 to 80,000 troops. With this by no means overwhelming force, they overran nearly the whole of Russia, which they held in subjection for centuries, and they destroyed "in six weeks all the military strength of Poland, Hungary, and Eastern Germany." The division that swept through Poland, carrying all before them in less than thirty days, defeated a combined army of Slavs and Germans at Liegnitz, then plundered Lusatia, Moravia, and Silesia, scornfully heedless of the army which King Wenzel of Bohemia kept safely in the mountains. The main body in Hungary, after a first success, covered 296 kilometres in less than the three following days—a feat perhaps without parallel in military annals—won a victory on the morrow, driving the enemy into marshes from which but four escaped; and finally, a month later, by splended manœuvring, defeated a superior army of Hungarians, Germans, Croats, and Western volunteers at Miskolcz, with a loss of thirty to forty thousand men. More extraordinary still, if anything, is the fact that this invading swarm of cavalry, with perhaps a few Chinese engineers and light battering-machines, should have captured every town it seriously besieged from Kiev to the impregnable Gran on the Austrian frontier. The death of Ogdai, the Great Khan, caused Batu to retrace his steps eastward, while Subutai returned to the wars in China, but soon withdrew to die peaceably. "From Corea to Friuli, he had conquered thirty-two nations and won sixty-five pitched battles."

The decline of the Mongol empire was rapid. Under Kublai the capital was removed to Pekin, where the Great Khans and their followers had become Buddhists and Chinese in character; yet within a little over a century they were overthrown by the national movement which brought about the Ming dynasty. The great dependencies to the east were from the first practically independent. They soon adopted Mohammedanism, and the Christians, once so numerous among this most tolerant of races, entirely disappeared. The kingdoms broke up, yet one of them had one more moment of great glory and empire under the famous Timur, with whose reign M. Cahun closes his book. His conclusion, in taking leave of the people for whom he has evidently so much sympathy, is noteworthy. He ascribes their decline to their belief:

"I have pointed out how refractory the Turkish nature is to controversy and theology,

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how naturally prone to discipline. In accepting Islam as a state religion, the Turks of Turkestan, of Trans-oxania, of Kharesm, adopted it as a whole without discussion, in a military manner, like a password. During a hundred years the monks and theologians of Bokhara were able to mould their brains at will without being embarrassed by a contradiction, a subtlety, or a simple commentary. Thus the Renaissance in Central Asia was nothing but a renewal of the Middle Ages. While the Europeans, under the spur of Hellenism, and dazzled by the rediscovery of antiquity, were launching boldly out towards the unknown, towards free research, towards revolt, the Asiatics, their equals till the fifteenth century, let themselves docilely be brought back to the School as conceived by the sages of the orthodox Khalif. They discovered as a novelty Aristotle (as deformed by the Arabs), they returned to the 'Amalgest,' they plunged into Avicenna, their compatriot, they began again in Turkish the epoch of the Sassanidæ; they 'marked time,' but never advanced (*ils piétinèrent sur place*). All their intellectual activity, and they had as much as others, spent itself in scholasticism, in jurisprudence, in rhetoric; with great efforts they reconstituted Euclid. Ptolemy, Galen, Hippocrates—they hardly dared touch Plato; to go further would have been to lose themselves. Little by little, with the help of the monks, they came to think only of their salvation and to be content with the Koran."

On Parody. By A. S. Martin. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

DR. JOHNSON had a very low opinion of parody, and so, no doubt, had Wordsworth; the former considered it too easy. But then, nobody ever contended for anything more than that it was an effective and very amusing form of satire. The very greatest writers of all ages have made use of it, and, so long as man retains the capacity of being amused by contrasts, so long he will continue to enjoy parody. Mr. Martin's book consists of an essay on parody, with numerous examples, many of which are good. Going back to the Greeks, and tracing parody down through the Roman and mediæval period to our own time, we find the Greeks and our own race to have been its masters. There is a good deal of mediæval parody that must have made the monks, friars, and priests laugh, but we have to mount to Aristophanes before we find the same kind of travesty that we enjoy so much nowadays. In English literature parody has been the test of fame; with the exception of Shakspere, every serious writer, and especially every serious poet, has had his parodist, often himself a great writer. Throughout English literature, parody is the laughing echo of all serious verse, and in our own time it has become a regular branch of literary business, each new writer possessed of a distinct style being welcomed by a chorus of travesty. This has been for years a specialty of *Punch*. It is surprising how much this book owes to verse contributed to that journal by unknown writers.

Mr. Martin's survey is not by any means complete. He does not seem to know of Sir F. Pollock's extraordinarily clever verse, which certainly deserved mention; we miss also

"Not a sou had he got, nor a penny or note."

Maginn is cited only for

"My heart leaps up when I behold
A bailiff in the street."

Canning's "Needy Knife-grinder" would have been far better than "Despairing beside a clear stream." But the book is full of good examples. We are glad to see some mention made of Mr. James Davis, a writer for the press whose name is far less known than it deserves to be. His parodies were devoted—at least such of them as we remember—to satire of the attempt to found a cult or religion upon agnosticism. His creed, concluding with an avowal of belief in "the disunion of the saints, the survival of the fittest, the persistence of force, the dispersion of the body, and in death everlasting," is the only thing given in full (p. 23). His lines in imitation of Addison's should be, if we remember right:

"You orb which shines to light the Day
One hundred million miles away,
Evolved from nebulous creation
By forces and their correlation,
Shall keep us whirling in its orbit
Till force and motion reabsorb it."

A verse is missing from the hymn in praise of the spectroscope: and if his book reaches another edition, we hope Mr. Martin will look up the tract about the good little Positivist boy brought up in an atmosphere of pure agnosticism (being allowed only to read such literature as the above, and to play only with philosophical toys), whom a little Christian boy misled for a time with his wicked Christian books and toys, until in the end the little agnostic caught cold and lay on his death-bed, when, fortunately, his parents were able to rescue him from the depraved influences to which he had sunk a victim, so that the little fellow died with a happy smile on his face murmuring, "Home—home—homeogeneous Evolution."

Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture. By E. P. Evans. With a bibliography and 78 illustrations. Henry Holt & Co. 1896. Pp. xii, 375.

THIS is a book of a class once more common than it is now, for it is rare in these times to see, at least in English, great masses of strange information put together without definite and declared purpose. This is not a history of animal or other symbolism in architecture, ecclesiastical or other, or in mediæval art taken together. There is in it a most entertaining account of the pagan statues, bas-reliefs, and gems which have been taken over into ecclesiastical service by attributing to John the Baptist what originally belonged to Mars, and to the Virgin what had been dedicated to Venus (pp. 306 to 315). The well-known seated statues in the Vatican of the Greek comic poets, Poseidippos and Menandros, were, we are told, adored as saints after their discovery in Rome in the sixteenth century. This is rather a late instance, but such ascriptions were common enough in earlier years. The peacock and the eagle, as the attributes of Juno and Jupiter, are common on the sarcophagi of Emperors and Empresses; hence they were used for Christian tombs; from these they invaded other Christian decoration. Being received as common emblems in Christian art, their presence had to be accounted for, and strange legends are accepted as sufficient explanation. Thus, the peacock's flesh not being subject to decay, it is emblematic of the incorruptible spiritual body. St. Augustine was desirous of ascertaining whether the flesh of the bird had really this unusual property, showing in this a scientific spirit worthy of so great a thinker; and, the legend relates, he found that it was strictly true.

In another part of the book we hear of the wonderful marine bishop who was caught as any mere merman might have been caught in the fifteenth century and in the Northern seas. The ecclesiastical dignitary refused or was unable to speak, but gave its episcopal blessing to its captors when they released it, by the well-known gesture (made, it appears, "with its fin"). The unicorn, with all its strange associations with maidens, by whom alone it can be caught, is of course a favorite attribute of the Virgin, and the picture common in the later middle ages of a unicorn hunted and flying to a maiden as if for shelter is capable of being explained in many different ways. Pearls are drops of dew, which a certain sea-creature, coming to the surface, receives direct from the sky. This legend has also several explanations.

Stories like these, selected from many ancient authorities, or traced in the carvings of the earlier middle ages and in prints of a later time, fill this book from cover to cover. A very full index serves to unlock all its mysteries in their turn. It is as well read by the use of the index as in any other way. For example, we found our curiosity greatly excited by the entry, "Luther, Martin, on the aqueous origin of swallows," and on turning to page 149 read how Luther, in his commentary on Genesis, confirms the text about the waters bringing forth living creatures by pointing out that, even in his time, the swallows lay dormant under water all winter long and emerged every spring, even as they emerged on the fifth day of creation. To any one who desires a large amount of this sort of information, not very successfully organized, this book may be recommended.

The Story of Cuba: Her Struggles for Liberty, the Cause, Crisis, and Destiny of the Pearl of the Antilles. By Murat Halstead. Illustrated. Chicago: The Werner Company. 1896.

MR. HALSTEAD'S volume, apart from the historical portions, has a certain value as the report of a newspaper correspondent who has recently visited Cuba, though the evidence it contains is mainly what lawyers call "cumulative." The author does not seem to have seen anything of the island outside of Havana, nor to have ever been behind the scenes either of the Spanish or the insurrectionary side. We hear, as usual, a great deal about the wrongs and oppressions of the Spaniards, but, owing, no doubt, in great measure to the fact that the rising is not in the hands of political men, no definite explanation is given of what sort of redress is contemplated, beyond emancipation from the Spanish yoke. To all inquiries "Cuba libre!" is the invariable reply, just as it might have been in the time of Bolivar. But the world, having grown older and wiser than it was in Bolivar's time, wants to know now not merely that some one is struggling to be free, but what use he is likely to make of his freedom after he has attained it. On this point the Cubans are absolutely silent, and their present lack of anything like an organized civil government makes it extremely difficult to say even whether they have any political plan. Our politicians, therefore, very kindly answer the question for them by saying that of course Cuba will become part of the United States.

No doubt this would in the end redeem the island, but it would be a frightful piece of work for us. Not only should we have to settle with Spain, for a debt of millions has been heaped up on account of Cuba for which Spain is responsible, but we should add to our domain the country which Mr. Halstead describes—an island nearly the size of England, inhabited by a couple of millions, or less, of blacks and whites, the former only recently freed, and neither race having shown any political qualities, while both are fond of fighting and lawlessness. Outside the cities (Gallenga, in his prophetic 'Pearl of the Antilles,' describes the beginning

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of the process) the cultivated territory is relapsing into waste, and, as the present war is a marauding and predatory war, the entire sugar and tobacco "plant," outside the places guarded by troops, is being destroyed. But if we are to consider ourselves as heirs of the property, this fact is not of so much importance as that the place of everything destroyed is being taken by debt, and that the population is composed of very poor materials for self-government. The island is naturally so rich that a few years would repair the waste, but what Senators it would send to Washington, what delegates and alternates to national conventions! Our Southern slaveholders' longing for Cuba was the natural diseased craving for a stimulant adapted to reinvigorate an exhausted social organism; the Southern demagogues' present passion seems to spring from causes quite as unhealthy.

To our mind, Mr. Halstead's facts destroy the arguments suggested by political fancy. The argument from "destiny," however, is unanswerable, and always has been to those who believe in it. Cuba belongs by destiny to the United States, just as Canada and Mexico do, to say nothing of South America; it is also part of destiny that the present owners of these countries should vigorously resist parting with them, so that it will probably be centuries before destiny is accomplished satisfactorily to all parties. Newspaper correspondents, however, occupy themselves much with the future, and we are glad to know from Mr. Halstead that it will all turn out right in the end.

Women in English Life, from Mediæval to Modern Times. By Georgiana Hill, author of 'A History of English Dress.' 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xx, 350-362. London: Richard Bentley & Son; New York: Macmillan.

"THE sixteenth century was England's great literary renaissance. Fresh streams of intellectual life were poured into the nation. There was activity in all departments of thought. The study of poetry, of theology, of the classics went on apace. The printing-press was letting loose floods of knowledge. The tide swept the women of the nobility along in its course."

Seven hundred pages of stale "statements" of this kind do not make a book to be warmly welcomed; and the many chapters, and the countless paragraphs of sentences eight, ten, twelve words long, chopped off with an abrupt full stop, are not easy reading. The truth is, there is no pulse of vitality in these volumes: the deadness of mechanical production pervades them. They contain a mass of information—many masses, rather—but for the most part of a somewhat trivial quality, and which few persons could profitably select from and cook the facts for themselves, while, in its present condition, no literary stomach could digest it. The reader can only regret that so much ability for painstaking has been so misapplied, and that such attractive-looking volumes should contain so little for either an idle or a studious hour. A heap, however large, of unsorted pebbles, even though they may have been brought from a distance, creates only a cairn that does not long detain the steps of the traveller.

The work treats of five "periods." Period I., "Women in the Days of Feudalism," is dismissed in a hundred pages. Period II., "England after the Renaissance," occupies two hundred; Period III., "Life in the Last Century," one hundred and thirty; and Period IV., "Women in the Victorian Era," just twice as many. The longest "periods," the nineteenth century and the seventeenth, are the most readable. The glimpses of the great ladies and city dames of the Stuart ages in their domestic life and in their petitions to Parliament afford some entertainment; but here especially is needed careful information regarding the difference in the value of money then and now, to which the authoress only casually refers, and which constantly bears an important relation to the matters touched upon. The sketches of her contemporaries given by Miss Hill present with praiseworthy impartiality a view of the philanthropic, the professional, the political woman we all know—the *public* woman, the "modern woman." The account of the Primrose League and the Women's Liberal Federation is too short to do more than excite curiosity as to the methods of these organizations; but it succeeds in doing that. Everywhere there is a deplorable lack of accurate references to the "authorities" of the compiler, to her sources of information, which makes it entirely impossible to study "after" her, to "look up" any point of interest in her companionship. There are few glaring mistakes. One occurs in vol. ii., p. 17, where Horace Walpole is spoken of as the *brother* (not the son) of Sir Robert Walpole.

Strikes and Social Problems. By J. Shield Nicholson. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

THE title of this book is not very well chosen. It suggests that we are to consider the relation of strikes to other phenomena in the industrial world; but this is only partly true. What we have here is really a collection of essays on a number of interesting subjects—essays which have little more unity than what comes from being bound within the same covers. Nevertheless, they are so meritorious as to be worth reading by economists, and to deserve the careful attention of thinking people in general. Their distinguishing mark is common sense—not the distinguishing mark of a good deal of the recent writing on economic subjects—and they are extremely clear and simple in statement. Their significance from the economic point of view is their decorous but unmistakable repudiation of the socialistic tendencies that have largely prevailed in England since Mill and Cairnes passed away. It is high time for protest of this kind, and Prof. Nicholson will find plenty of people ready to be converted.

We can mention but a few of the fallacies which have had much popularity with this generation, and which Prof. Nicholson punctures. It has been so vehemently asserted as to be commonly believed that the rise of wages during the last fifty years has been due to the trade unions. Trade unions have insisted that wages should be raised, and wages have risen; that has established the relation of cause and effect for many people in England, just as the tariff is held to be the efficient force in this country. Prof. Nicholson points out that these unions have not invented machines, or opened markets, or extended credit. They have probably, on the whole, diminished production and discouraged enterprise; and if they follow the leaders that are now most prominent, they will seriously interfere with commercial prosperity. So of the "living-wage" theory. Prof. Nicholson says flatly that to suppose that any class of laborers can obtain higher wages by refusing to work for lower wages is a gross and mischievous fallacy, and he supports his assertion by sufficient proofs. Combination is futile to effect it except when competition would effect it. And, after all the abuse that has been heaped upon competition, it is the great preserver of freedom and promoter of equality.

We cannot follow the arguments with which Prof. Nicholson disposes of the philosophers of the Fabian school, or exposes the shallow critics of the great economists of former days. We must content ourselves with general praise of his methods and specific commendation of the essay on the "Reality of Industrial Progress," that on the "Classical Political Economy," and the "Plea for Industrial Liberty." Altogether, the book is wholesome and stimulating in a high degree, and time spent in reading it is time well spent.

The Sun. By C. A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D. New and revised edition. Appletons.

THIS popular work, originally published fifteen years ago, has already passed through four or five editions, in which it has been kept measurably up to date by the expedient of notes and appendices. But during this fertile period the advances in our knowledge have been so great as to necessitate a thorough rewriting. Past investigations upon the sun's distance have been so corrected that one can now rely upon the round value 93,000,000 miles, and a corresponding parallax a trifle less than 8".8, with practical certainty that no subsequent research within the next quarter century can displace it. Dr. Gill of Cape Town and Prof. Newcomb of Washington have mainly contributed to this result. Prof. Young makes, however, a very proper reservation as to the embarrassment of the aberration method due to the newly found fluctuation of terrestrial latitudes; and it is altogether probable that our next noteworthy improvement in the sun's distance will come from a research taking full account of this perplexing variation. So thoroughly at home is Prof. Young in all the varied lines of solar work that one need fear no inaccuracy in his account of the labors of others. His presentation of recent advances in photography of the solar spectrum embraces a new and interesting plate of the great Princeton spectroscope; and proper regard is paid to Prof. Rowland's epoch-making work at the Johns Hopkins University (dating from about 1890, and now everywhere accepted as the standard), to the extraordinary clearness and beauty of execution which characterize the detailed photographic maps of Mr. Higgs of Liverpool, and to the excellent maps of the late M. Thollon of Nice, showing the varying appearance of the spectrum corresponding to different altitudes of the sun. The presence of known terrestrial elements in the sun has been very fully investigated by Prof. Rowland in the last few years, and he can thus far reckon with certainty about forty elements. Iridium, platinum, tungsten, uranium, and a few others are doubtful; chlorine, fluorine, iodine, and bromine are among those not yet tried by Prof. Rowland; while antimony, gold, phosphorus, mercury, sulphur, and about ten others less prominent are not yet found in the sun. But, as Prof. Rowland has himself remarked, his failure to find them is very little evidence of their absence from the sun itself. Two other elements require especial notice from their manifestation of bright lines—coronium, not yet traced to earth; and helium, finally identified by Ramsay last year, in connection with his researches upon argon, discovered by Lord Rayleigh and himself as a hitherto unrecognized constituent of our atmosphere. Helium, it has been found, can be obtained from nearly all the uranium minerals, in some instances

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commingled with argon and in others nearly pure. Meteoric iron contains it, also the waters of certain mineral springs in the Pyrenees and the Black Forest; indeed, as Prof. Young says, it turns out to be very widely distributed, although only in very small quantities, and probably never free. But whether the new element is really elementary or a double compound is not yet known, and this question is still under investigation by Runge of Berlin and other leading spectroscopists, who have found that the lines of its spectrum divide into two sets mathematically independent of each other.

Perhaps the most remarkable recent advances in methods of solar research are due to Prof. Hale of the University of Chicago, whose ingenious spectro-heliograph receives full elucidation at the hands of Prof. Young. Nor are the pictorial results obtained with it neglected, whether they be faculæ, which Prof. Hale was the first to photograph in belts across the sun's disk, similar to those in which the ordinary dark spots occur, or the protuberances which he (followed by Deslandres of Paris) now photographs at any time by monochromatic light, at any or all parts of the sun's limb where they may show themselves.

We can hardly afford space for even mention of all the modern researches sufficiently treated by Prof. Young; but we have detected no omission on his part. Not only are all observational results dealt with, like Howlett's faithful thirty-five-year spot series recently completed, but the speculative theories of Brester and Schmidt receive that fair and careful treatment which their authors deserve, although neither of these theories can be said to commend itself in all particulars to practical students of solar physics. Also, we must pass by the late determinations of the effective temperature of the sun's surface, equal to about 14,000 degrees Fahrenheit, by Le Chatelier and Wilson independently, and Hale's repeated but unsuccessful attempts to photograph the sun's corona without an eclipse. But no modern solar research has aroused intenser interest than Prof. Langley's investigations of the infra-red portion of the solar spectrum through a highly sensitive heat-measurer of his own invention. His most recent achievement with this instrument is an ingenious method, accessory to it, by which all the rapid fluctuations of the tract in question are automatically photographed in a form precisely comparable with the upper portions of the spectrum as ordinarily recorded. We have now, indeed, a complete chart of this invisible heat spectrum ten times as long as the sun's entire luminous spectrum, and there are indications of heat even farther below the red. So sensitive is this delicate instrument that a change of temperature no greater than the millionth part of a degree centigrade is detectible. But the explanation of the geometrical arrangement of the lines in this invisible spectrum is a work hardly yet begun.

A typographic inaccuracy here and there, as Burckhardt for Burckhalter (p. 253); and a slip as to the residence of Bigelow of the Signal Service, Washington, needs correction in a subsequent issue, which the great importance of the subject and the rapid growth of solar investigation will early render necessary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

America and Europe: A Study of International Relations. Putnams. 75c.
Becke, Louis, and Jeffery, Walter. A First-Fleet Family. Macmillan. $1.50.
Clark, Imogen. The Victory of Ezry Gardner. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Delitzsch, Prof. F. Assyrisches Handwörterbuch. Vierter (Schluss) Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Fenn, G. M. The Tiger Lily: A Story of a Woman. Cassell. 50c.
Fuller, Anna. A Venetian June. Putnams. $1.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Hardy, Thomas. Wessex Tales. Harpers. $1.50.
Hichens, R. S. The Folly of Eustace, and Other Stories. Appletons. 75c.
Honor Ormthwaite: A Novel. Harpers. $1.
Hooper, Emma M. Home Dressmaking Made Easy. New York: The Economist Press.
Hume, Fergus. The Dwarf's Chamber, and Other Stories. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Hutton, W. H. King and Baronage. [Oxford Manuals of English History.] Scribners. 50c.
Hutton, W. H. Philip Augustus. Macmillan. 75c.
Knapp, Mary C. Whose Soul Have I Now? *Arena* Publishing Co.
Knight, William. Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vol. IV. Macmillan. $1.50.
Knowles, R. G., and Morton, Richard. Baseball. [The "Oval" Series of Games.] London: George Routledge & Sons.
Kobbé, Gustav. My Rosary, and Other Poems. G. H. Richmond Co.
Koch, Richert von. Camilla: A Novel. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Malone, Walter. Songs of December and June. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Marchmont, A. W. Parson Thring's Secret. Cassell. 50c.
McCarthy, Justin. The Riddle Ring. Appletons.
Michel, André. Notes sur l'Art Moderne (Peinture). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Mitchell, C. A. The Evolution of Bird-Song; with Observations on Heredity and Imitation. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Molloy, J. F. The Most Gorgeous Lady Blessington. 4th ed. 2 vols. Scribners. $4.
Morris, William O'Connor. Ireland, 1494–1868. With two introductory chapters. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Deuteronomy. [The Modern Reader's Bible.] Macmillan. 50c.
Palmer, Prof. Arthur. Catulli Veronensis Liber. [Parnassus Library.] Macmillan. $1.10
Philios, Démétrios. Eleusis, ses Mystères, ses Ruines et son Musée. Athens: Anestis Constantinides.
Pinsent, Ellen F. No Place for Repentance. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Poetical Sermons: A Thank-Offering of Song. Brooklyn: W. E. Davenport.
Robertson, C. G. The Making of the English Nation. [Oxford Manuals of English History.] Scribners. 50c.
Rogers, R. C. Will o' the Wasp: A Sea Yarn of the War of '12. Putnams. $1.25.
Rolfe, W. J. The Coming of Arthur, and Other Idylls of the King. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Ross, E. G. History of the Impeachment of Andrew Johnson. Santa Fé: New Mexican Printing Co.
Salt, H. S. Life of Henry David Thoreau. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.
Savage, R. H. Checked Through. Rand, McNally & Co. 50c.
Say, Léon. Les Finances. [La Vie Nationale.] Paris: Léon Chailley.
Schmid, C. A. Beiträge zur Geschichte der gewerblichen Arbeit in England während der letzten 50 Jahre. Jena: Gustav Fischer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Sharp, Elizabeth A. Lyra Celtica. Edinburgh: Geddes; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Shelton, Thomas. The History of Don Quixote. [Tudor Translations.] Vols. i., ii. London: David Nutt.
Stecher, W. A. Text-Book of the German-American System of Gymnastics. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Stories by English Authors: Italy. Africa. Scribners. Each 75c.
Thacher, J. B. The Continent of America: Its Discovery and its Baptism. W. E. Benjamin. $25.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Evidence at the Common Law. Part I. Development of Trial by Jury. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Weber, Prof. Alfred. History of Philosophy. From the fifth French edition. Scribners. $2.50.

Francke's Social Forces in German Literature.

A Study in the History of Civilization. By KUNO FRANCKE, Assistant Professor in Harvard University. $2 *net*.

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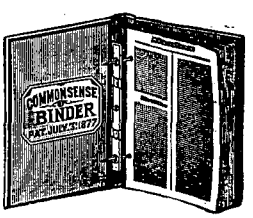

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